# STANDARD HISTORY of THE WORLD

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COLUMBUS

From the Painting by V. Brozik (Metropolitan Museum of Art)

# THE
# STANDARD HISTORY
# OF THE WORLD

A NARRATIVE OF POLITICAL EVENTS AND A RECORD OF CIVILIZATION FROM THE EARLIEST HISTORICAL PERIOD TO THE PRESENT, EMBRACING A GENERAL SURVEY OF HUMAN PROGRESS AND ACHIEVEMENT, CIVIL GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, LITERATURE, SCIENCE AND ART.


BY

## ISRAEL SMITH CLARE

*Author of "Illustrated Universal History," "Complete Historical Compendium," "Universal History of the World," "History of the British-Boer War," and Other Works; Also Author of a Series of Forty Historical Maps; Member of the American Historical Association.*


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*Revised Edition under the Editorial Supervision of*

## PAUL LELAND HAWORTH, A. M., PH. D.

*Former Lecturer in History, Columbia University; Author; Professor of History, Butler University.*

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### Special Contributors

CHARLES FRANCIS HORNE, M. S., Ph. D., *Professor English, College City of New York.* CHARLES W. RAMSDELL, B. A., M. A., Ph. D., *Professor History, University of Texas.* FRANK WILSON BLACKMAR, A. M., Ph. D., *Professor Sociology, University of Kansas (Former Professor of History and Sociology).* SAMUEL BANNISTER HARDING, A. M., Ph. D., *Professor History, University of Minnesota.* ARTHUR EDWARD ROMILLY BOAK, A. M., Ph. D., *Professor History, University of Michigan.* PAUL EDWARD KRETZMANN, M. A., Ph. D., D. D., *Concordia Seminary.* WALTER LINWOOD FLEMING, A. M., Ph. D., *Professor History, Vanderbilt University.* ISAAC JOSLIN COX, Ph. D., *Professor History, Northwestern University.* JAMES ALBERT WOODBURN, A. B., Ph. D., *Emeritus Professor History, Indiana University.* FREDERIC L. THOMPSON, *Professor History, Amherst College.* JEFFERSON ELMORE, Ph. D., *Professor Ancient History, Stanford University.* HENRI F. KLEIN, *Editor, New Larned History.*

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## Complete in Ten Volumes

## VOLUME VI—MODERN HISTORY

### Illustrated with Maps, Portraits and Diagrams

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CINCINNATI

STANDARD HISTORICAL SOCIETY

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# INTRODUCTION

*By* PAUL EDWARD KRETZMANN, M. A., PH. D., D. D.
*Concordia Seminary*

IF HISTORY were the mere chronicling of events of which the chronicler believes that they are more or less closely related, it would be an almost unbearably monotonous study. Merely to know that a certain event happened, and that it took place at a certain time within the period covered by the history of the known world, has little relation to true scholarship and still less to the social evaluation of historical data and the application of their lessons to present-day situations.

The new viewpoint in the study of history, therefore, opens up the most remarkable vistas of possibilities, the most alluring avenues of approach, with regard to the adaptation and application of historical knowledge to social conditions of today. In the mirror of the past the power of the future is revealed. The person who is in touch with the great events of the past, with the background of their economic significance and the great religious, political, and social motives which guided the destinies of individual nations and of all mankind, is in a position best to interpret the conditions obtaining in any day and age, including the present era.

This is particularly true of the material which is offered in the present volume of the Standard History of the World. As a matter of fact, the events pictured in this section of the world's history were foreshadowed by a number of singular incidents, of apparently unrelated happenings which, nevertheless, had a direct bearing upon all subsequent developments in the history of the world. When John Wyclif raised his voice against certain abuses of his day, men admired his fearlessness, others condemned what they considered his foolhardiness,—few realized that he was the precursor of a new era. When John Huss ascended the pyre to be burned at the stake, few men of his day realized that one of his final statements was in the nature of a prophecy which had a most profound bearing on the history of the world. When Jerome Savonarola, a few years before the close of the fifteenth century, suffered a like fate in the city of Florence, the great majority of his countrymen had no other impression than that another wild-eyed fanatic had paid the penalty of his extreme views.

The fall of Constantinople, in the year 1453, seemed to be but an incident in the victorious progress of the Mohammedan armies. Who would have guessed, at that time, that this event would bring some of the foremost scholars of the Orient to the West, thereby giving a new impetus to learning and ushering

in the era of Humanism and the remarkable period known as the Renaissance? Neither Petrarch nor Boccacio, neither Chrysoloras nor Vittorino de Feltre, neither Agricola nor Reuchlin, neither Erasmus nor Ascham would have been possible if it had not been for this great humanistic awakening. And as for St. Peter's in Rome, St. Paul's in London, and the thousands of other products of the Renaissance in architecture, in sculpture, in painting, and in poetry,—we simply can not conceive of them without this remarkable impetus.

And yet all this was merely preparatory for, and incidental to, an event which most people associate entirely with ecclesiastical history, and of the narrower kind, namely the Reformation of the sixteenth century. When the son of a Saxon peasant defied the most powerful spiritual and temporal leaders of the world in upholding the inherent rights of the individual to live according to the dictates of his own conscience, limited only by the absolute truth of the Word of God; when he dared to post his Ninety-five Theses challenging the whole world to disprove the conviction born of years of affliction and painful experience; when he stood in the presence of the mightiest emperor of the earth and declared his inability to depart by as much as one inch from the truth which had been forced upon him by the one infallible guide—then was not merely the so-called Lutheran movement born, but there was ushered in an era of development whose advance has not yet spent itself, but is extending its power into the most remote corners of the globe.

The Reformation of the sixteenth century was, indeed, first, last, and always, a religious movement. But it had implications, effects, and by-products along many lines. In the sphere of human liberty it meant the gradual acknowledgment of the rights of the individual, that "all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these rights are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." In the sphere of politics it meant inevitably the enfranchisement of the individual and the separation of Church and State. The Reformation was a declaration of the equality of all men before their Creator, so that the common man was henceforth no longer to be regarded as a mere pawn to be moved at the will of an absolute Church or of an absolute State. The Reformation has resulted in awakening in men everywhere the consciousness of privilege and responsibility and with it the yearning for liberty in the widest sense of the word.

Such is the importance of the study of this period of the world's history!

(Prof.) P. E. Kretzmann
Ph.D., D.D.

*From Stereograph, copyright 1893 by Underwood & Underwood*

"SANTA MARIA," THE FLAGSHIP OF COLUMBUS

From the Model in the naval parade at New York, 1893

# CHAPTER XXXII.

# DAWN OF THE MODERN ERA.

## SECTION I.—PROGRESS OF CIVILIZATION AND INVENTION.

Invention of the Art of Printing.

MANY useful inventions during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries aided vastly in the return of European civilization at the close of the fifteenth century. The most important of these inventions was that of the art of printing, about the year 1440 A. D., by Laurence Koster, of Haarlem, in Holland, and John Gutenberg, of Mayence, in Germany, and Gutenberg's assistants, Faust and Schoeffer. The result of this useful invention was a great increase in the number of books, which now, for the first time, were attainable by all classes. Printing was introduced into England by William Caxton, in 1476, as we have already remarked.

Invention of Gunpowder and the Mariner's Compass.

The invention of gunpowder by the German monk, Berthold Schwarz, prepared the way for the downfall of Chivalry, by the substitution of firearms for the old weapons of warfare. The invention of the *mariner's compass* by the Italian, Flavio Gioja, gave a fresh impulse to navigation; and very soon the gallant Portuguese navigators ventured out farther and farther from the coast than had been hitherto attempted by any mariner, and made important discoveries of islands in the Atlantic and of lands on the coasts of Africa and Asia.

The Renaissance.

In the fifteenth century the long night of barbarism which had hung over Europe since the fall of the Western Roman Empire was rapidly passing away. The invention of the art of printing, and the flight of learned Greeks, with their valuable manuscripts, to Western Europe, upon the capture of Constantinople by the Turks, led to a revival of learning and the arts and sciences during the latter part of the fifteenth century; and the Greek and Hebrew languages now began to be studied in the great universities of Europe. Among those most instrumental in introducing the study of Greek were the two great scholars, John Reuchlin, of Pforzheim, in Germany, and Desiderius Erasmus, of Rotterdam, in Holland—both of whom flourished early in the sixteenth

century. This revival of art, science and literature is known as the Renaissance.

**Decay of Feudalism and Chivalry.**

The decay of the Feudal System about the close of the fifteenth century was followed by a change in the condition of the European states. During the Middle Ages, the great barons, or nobles, in every country of Europe, possessed the chief power; but about the close of the mediæval period the royal power became supreme in all the countries of Europe, and much of the freedom which the cities and towns in Spain, Italy, France, Germany and England had enjoyed was taken from them. Absolute monarchy was established in England by Henry VII., the first of the Tudor kings; in France by the crafty and cruel Louis XI.; in Austria by Maximilian I.; and in Spain by Ferdinand and Isabella. Chivalry had also decayed; and the knights, who at first had defended the weak and the oppressed, became highway robbers, especially in Germany, where they plundered and waylaid inoffensive peasants and merchants.

## SECTION II.—SEA-PASSAGE TO INDIA AND PORTUGUESE COLONIZATION (A. D. 1497–1622).

**Prince Henry and the Portuguese Maritime Discoveries.**

The Portuguese under Prince Henry—son of King John the Bastard (1385–1433)—took the lead in maritime discovery. This enlightened prince established an observatory near Cape St. Vincent, and gathered around him eminent astronomers and navigators from all quarters, and discussed with them his favorite project of finding a sea-passage to India by sailing around Africa. Under Prince Henry's patronage, the bold Portuguese navigators discovered and explored the western coast of Africa as far south as Cape de Verde; while the Madeira, the Azores and the Cape de Verde Islands were discovered and taken possession of by the Portuguese.

**Bartholomew Diaz and the Cape of Good Hope.**

Under the patronage of King John the Perfect (1481–1495), the Portuguese crossed the equator for the first time, and the coast of Guinea was discovered and settled by the enterprising Portuguese. In 1486 Bartholomew Diaz, a daring Portuguese navigator, discovered the southern point of Africa, which was named the *Cape of Good Hope*, because there was now good hope of finding a sea-passage to India.

**Vasco da Gama's Voyage to India and Founding of Calicut.**

In 1497—during the reign of King Manuel the Great (1495–1521)—Vasco da Gama, another bold Portuguese navigator, sailed round the Cape of Good Hope to India; thus discovering the sea-passage to the East Indies—a discovery which revolutionized the world's commerce, by diverting the trade of the East from the Venetians to the Portuguese. Vasco da Gama landed at Calicut, where was planted a Portu-

guese colony—the first European settlement in the East Indies. In 1500 Cabral, another Portuguese navigator, discovered Brazil, which was occupied and settled by the Portuguese.

**Portuguese Colonial Empire.**

The great voyages of Bartholomew Diaz and Vasco da Gama, which, at the close of the fifteenth century, made known to Europe the existence of a sea-passage to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope, led to the founding of a great Portuguese colonial empire in Southern and Eastern Asia. The founding of Calicut, on the Malabar coast of India, in 1498, was the first step in the establishment of such a dominion.

**Cabral and Almeida.**

Vasco da Gama's successor was Cabral, who discovered Brazil in 1500, during his voyage to India. The Portuguese power in India was extended by the gallant Almeida, Cabral's successor, who reduced many of the native princes of Hindoostan to tribute and forced them to consent to the establishment of Portuguese factories in their principal cities, and who was killed by the savage Hottentots of Southern Africa while on his return to Portugal.

**Founding of the Portuguese Empire in India by Albuquerque.**

The illustrious Dom Alfonso Albuquerque, the next Portuguese viceroy in the East, notwithstanding the hostility of the Mohammedan rulers of India, obtained a grant of ground from one of the Hindoo princes, and founded a strong fort at Cochin in 1503, where the Portuguese had established factories; and this stronghold became the cradle of the great commercial empire of the Portuguese, whose power was felt from China to the Red Sea. The Mohammedans, who had hitherto engrossed the entire commerce of India, formed a league to expel the Portuguese, and were encouraged therein by the Venetians, who purchased Indian spices and other goods from the Arabs, with which they supplied the principal markets of Europe; but this enterprise was defeated.

**His Conquest of Goa.**

In 1510 Albuquerque conquered the city of Goa, on the western coast of India, which afterwards became the capital of the Portuguese empire in the East, and was erected into an archbishopric by the Pope. Goa, which still belongs to the Portuguese, displays in its stately churches, warehouses and deserted dwellings a vestige of that magnificence which acquired for it the title of "Goa the Golden." The reduction of Goa was the first instance of territorial acquisition in India by European powers—a system strongly deprecated by Vasco da Gama, and which cannot be defended on any principles of national justice, but which Albuquerque declared absolutely necessary for Portugal to command the trade of the East.

**His Conquest of Malacca and Ormuz.**

Albuquerque also subdued the city of Malacca, the emporium of the trade of Farther India. He also reduced the isle of Ormuz, in the Persian Gulf, to subjection; and when the King of Persia, to whom the isle belonged, demanded tribute from the Portuguese viceroy, Albuquerque

pointing to his cannon and balls, replied: "There is the coin with which the King of Portugal pays tribute." Albuquerque caused the name of King Manuel the Great to be feared and respected throughout the East; but the illustrious viceroy was rewarded only with his sovereign's ingratitude, and died of grief because of this treatment.

**Portuguese Colonies in the East Indies.**

During the next ten years the Portuguese established colonies and factories on the island of Ceylon and on the Coromandel coast of Hindoostan, and subjected the spice-bearing Molucca and Sunda Islands to tribute. In 1517 the Portuguese were granted a trading-station at Macao, in China, which remained in their possession until 1846, when it was opened to all nations. They also obtained a free trade with the Empire of Japan.

**Macao.**

**Portuguese Dominion in Southern Asia and Eastern Africa.**

All the islands in the Persian Gulf acknowledged the dominion of the Portuguese. Some of the Arabian princes became their tributaries, while others became their allies; and throughout the entire Arabian peninsula none dared to show them any hostility. In the Red Sea they were the only power that commanded any respect, and they also had considerable influence over the Negus of Abyssinia and the other sovereigns of Eastern Africa.

**Isle of Ormuz.**

The most remarkable of the Portuguese settlements was the isle of Ormuz, which, although a salt and barren rock in the Persian Gulf, was rendered the most flourishing commercial mart in the East, on account of its commodious situation. Its roadsteads were frequented by shipping from all parts of the East Indies, from the coasts of Africa, Egypt and Arabia; and it possessed an extensive caravan trade with Central Asia through the opposite ports of Persia. The semi-annual fairs held at Ormuz transformed this salt and barren rock into almost the fabled splendor and luxury of an Oriental palace. The wealth, the splendor, and the concourse of traders at Ormuz during its flourishing condition furnished a striking example of the almost omnipotent power of commerce.

**Fairs at Ormuz.**

During the semi-annual fairs, which lasted from January to March, and from the end of August to the beginning of November, there was, besides the display of luxury and magnificence, an almost unparalleled activity. The salt dust of the streets was concealed and kept down by neat mats and rich carpets. Canvas-awnings were extended from the roofs of the houses to exclude the scorching rays of the sun. The rooms next to the street were opened like shops, adorned with Indian cabinets and piles of porcelain, intermixed with odoriferous dwarf trees and shrubs, set in gilded vases, elegantly adorned with figures. At the corners of all the streets stood camels laden with water-skins; while the richest wines of Persia, the most costly perfumes and the choicest delicacies of Asia, were poured forth in lavish profusion.

Albuquerque's Aquisitions and the Turks.

The efforts of Albuquerque's successors were directed chiefly to the maintenance of his acquisitions and to checking the power of the Turks, who, after conquering Egypt and Syria in 1517, made strenuous efforts to establish themselves on the Malabar coast of India.

Great Extent of the Portuguese Colonial Empire.

Thus, early in the sixteenth century, the Portuguese had established a colonial and commercial empire which embraced the western, southern and eastern coasts of Africa, from Guinea to the Red Sea, and which extended along the shores of Southern and Eastern Asia from the Red Sea to China; although throughout this vast extent of territory they had little more than a chain of factories and forts. Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, became the seat of the world's commerce; but the nobler emotions in the hearts of the Portuguese were stifled by avarice and selfishness.

Loss of Portugal's East India Possessions.

On the union of Portugal with Spain in 1580 the Portuguese East India possessions also came into the possession of the Spaniards; but when Spanish tyranny and cruelty caused the Dutch to revolt, the Dutch extended their commerce to the East Indies, and at the close of the sixteenth century they had possession of the once-flourishing Portuguese colonial empire. In 1622 Ormuz was wrested from the Portuguese by the English and the Persians. The glory and splendor of that famous emporium soon departed, and it relapsed into its original condition of a barren and desolate rock, so that not a vestige of its former grandeur remains.

Ruin of Ormuz.

Cabral's Discovery of Brazil.

After Pedro Alvarez Cabral, while on his voyage to India to continue the discoveries of Vasco da Gama, had accidentally discovered the coast of Brazil by being driven westward by adverse winds, April 22, 1500, he anchored in the large and excellent harbor of Porto Seguro, April 25, 1500, and took possession of the country in the name of his sovereign, King Manuel the Great of Portugal; after which he resumed his voyage to the East Indies, having sent a vessel back to Portugal with the news of his discovery.

Amerigo Vespucci's Exploration of Brazil.

Upon receiving intelligence of Cabral's discovery, the King of Portugal sent an expedition under Amerigo Vespucci to visit and explore the new country. Upon his return to Europe, Amerigo Vespucci published an account of the country, together with a map. He brought back a cargo of dyewoods, of which he said that whole forests were to be found in Brazil; and an active and profitable trade in these woods at once sprang up. Other nations commenced to take part in this traffic, and the King of Portugal determined to put a stop to this intrusion.

Portuguese Colonization of Brazil.

Accordingly, in 1531, King John III. caused a number of Portuguese colonies to be planted on the coast of Brazil. These settlements were called *Capitanias*, and were founded by Portuguese nobles, to

whom the King of Portugal granted absolute powers over their settlements on the sole condition that they should bear the expense of colonization. This system worked admirably for several years, but at length it caused so much trouble that the Portuguese government determined to establish a permanent colonial system directly dependent on the Portuguese crown.

First Portuguese Governor-General of Brazil.

In 1549 a Governor-General was appointed for Brazil, and was made the direct representative of the King of Portugal, being vested with absolute jurisdiction in civil and criminal matters. The first Governor-General of Brazil was Thomé de Souza, and the success of the new system was due to his wisdom and good government. He founded the town of Sao Salvador da Bahia, and made it the capital of Brazil. A colony of French Protestants settled on an island in the bay of Rio de Janeiro in 1555, but were expelled ten years later. The Portuguese founded Rio de Janeiro in 1567.

Founding of Bahia and Rio de Janeiro.

Portugal's Loss and Recovery of Brazil.

The forcible annexation of Portugal to Spain in 1580 made Brazil a Spanish dependency for the time, and Brazil suffered much from the attacks of Dutch, French and English fleets; but after Portugal had regained her independence in 1640 she recovered Brazil from the Dutch, who had in the meantime occupied the country, and Brazil was made a principality for the heir-apparent of the Portuguese crown.

## SECTION III.—DISCOVERY OF AMERICA (A. D. 1492–1542).

Discoveries by the Northmen

The Northmen discovered Iceland in 862 and Greenland in 1002; and it is believed that they discovered the North American continent and explored the coasts of Labrador, Newfoundland and New England before the year A. D. 1000, the most noted of their navigators being Lief Eriksson. It is believed that these Northmen built the mysterious old tower at Newport, Rhode Island.

Christopher Columbus.

Among others who were attracted to Lisbon was Christopher Columbus, a Genoese sailor. Columbus believed the earth to be round, and that India could be reached sooner by sailing westward than by making the long voyage around Africa. He vainly endeavored to procure aid, first from his native city, Genoa, and afterward from the Kings of Portugal and England; but he finally obtained assistance from the noble-hearted queen, Isabella of Castile, who fitted out several vessels for him, and appointed him admiral and viceroy of all the lands he might discover.

His Great Discovery.

On August 3, 1492, Christopher Columbus, with three Spanish vessels, left the harbor of Palos, in South-western Spain; and after a voyage of seventy days, he discovered, October 12, 1492, Guanahani, or

Cat Island, which he named *San Salvador* (Holy Saviour), and of which he took possession in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella—the joint sovereigns of Spain. Columbus found the inhabitants of a copper color and of savage manners; and, supposing he had only discovered the coast of India, he called the people *Indians*—a name ever since very inappropriately applied to the aborigines of the Western Continent. In 1493 he discovered the large and important islands of Cuba and Hayti, and founded the town of San Domingo—the first European settlement in the New World. Several other large islands were discovered, and Columbus named the whole group the *West Indies*. When Columbus returned to Spain he was treated with great honors by the ruling sovereigns, and his progress from Palos to Barcelona was a triumphal procession.

**Spain's Claim to the New World.**

After the great discovery by Columbus an India-house was established at Seville and a custom-house at Cadiz, under the direction of a new board of trade. Pope Alexander VI. conferred upon the King and Queen of Spain all the lands then or thereafter to be discovered in the New World, and these territories were to be divided from those of Portugal by an imaginary line passing due north and south, a hundred leagues west of the Azores.

**Further Discoveries by Columbus.**

Columbus made three other voyages across the stormy Atlantic. On his second voyage, in 1493, he discovered Jamaica and the Caribbee Islands. On his third voyage, in 1498, Columbus discovered the great continent of South America, at the mouth of the great river Orinoco. On his fourth and last voyage—during which he discovered Central America (A. D. 1501)—his enemies caused him to be sent back to Spain in irons. He died at Valladolid, in Spain, in 1506. Ferdinand ordered the following inscription to be put upon his tomb at Seville: "To Castile and Leon, Columbus gave a New World." His remains were afterwards conveyed to Havana, in Cuba, and in 1898 were returned to Spain.

**His Death.**

**His Remains.**

**Amerigo Vespucci.**

Columbus did not know that he had discovered a new continent, but thought that he had only reached the eastern shores of Asia. This secret was revealed to Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine navigator, who explored the eastern coast of South America in 1498, and published a glowing description of that vast continent. In his honor, the new world was named *America*.

**Sebastian Cabot's Discoveries and Explorations.**

In 1496 John Cabot—a native of Venice, but at that time a merchant of Bristol, in England—obtained the aid of King Henry VII. of England in fitting out an expedition for the discovery of a North-west passage to India. The next year (1497), the expedition—commanded by John Cabot's son, Sebastian—sailed westward and discovered the coasts of Labrador and Newfoundland, the latter being so called because it

De Cabrillo explored the same coast almost to the mouth of the Columbia river. The same year Coronado sailed up the Gulf of California and discovered the Gila river.

## SECTION IV.—THE ABORIGINES OF AMERICA.

**The Aborigines of America.**

The aborigines, or inhabitants of the American continent when discovered and settled by Europeans, were a race of copper-colored savages whom Columbus named *Indians*, because he did not know that he had discovered a new continent, but thought that he had only found the eastern coast of India. The Indian is often spoken of as the *Red Man*, in contradistinction from the European, or White Man.

**Their Characteristics.**

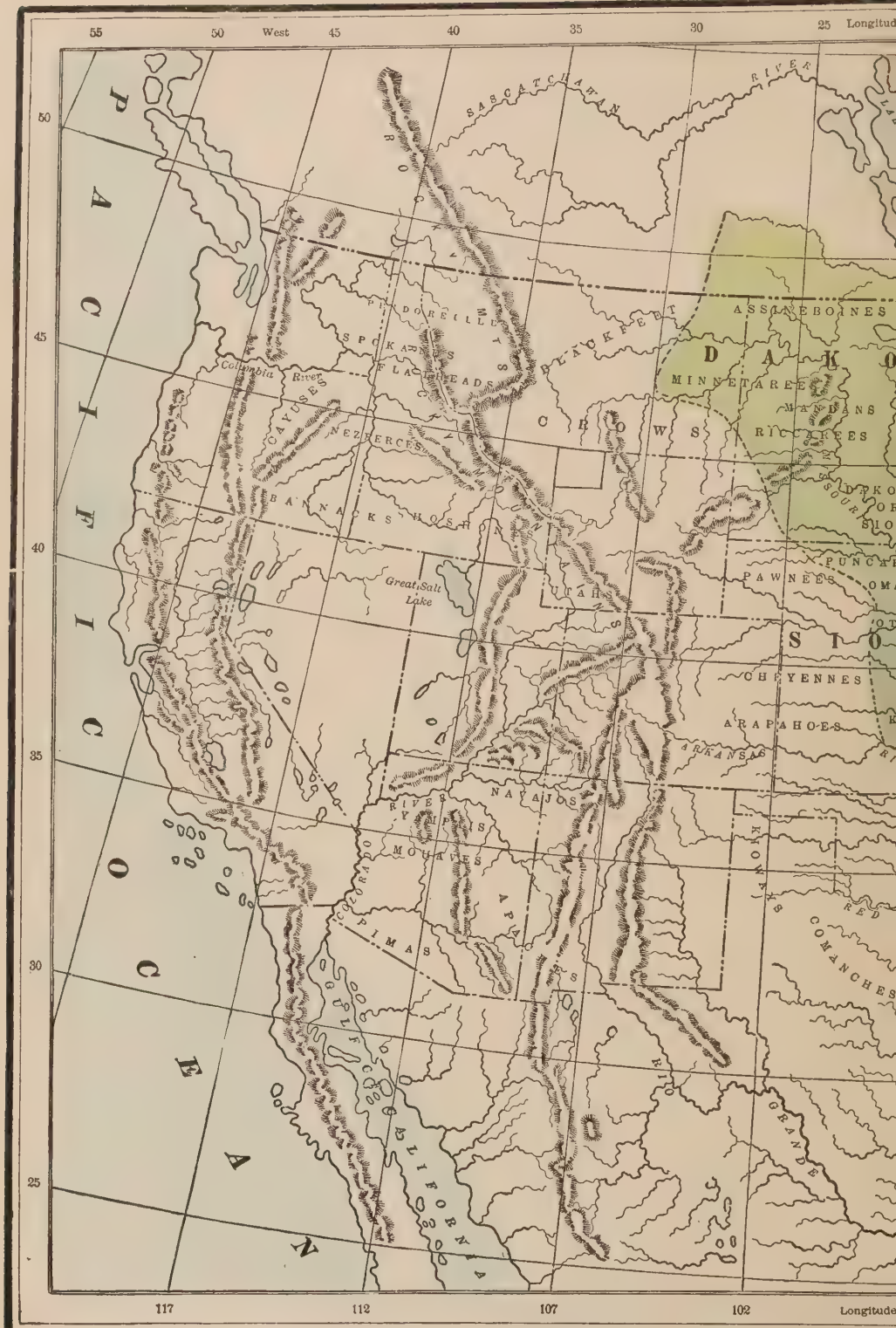
These people were divided into many nations or tribes, and spoke different languages and dialects. But they were very much alike in color, size, general physical appearance, moral character, religion and government. They were tall, straight and well formed. They had black eyes, and long, coarse and straight hair. There was very little sickness among them.

**Huts, Dress, Foods, Tools, Etc.**

These people lived in huts made of poles, covered with mats, skins of beasts or bark of trees. These rude huts were called *wigwams*. In summer these savages were almost naked. In winter they were dressed in the skins of beasts. Their food was the flesh of wild animals which they found in the woods, with fish and a few vegetables. They were very fond of *venison*, or flesh of the deer. They also raised *maize*, or Indian corn, for their food. They had very few tools, or implements, and these were made of stones, bones and shells.

**Their Warfare.**

The men were engaged in war, hunting and fishing. War was their principal occupation. Before going on the war-path they would indulge in the *war-dance*. About forty of them would generally go out as a war party. Sometimes only half-a-dozen went out on the war-path to gain glory. When they went on these warlike expeditions their faces were colored with red *war-paint*, and their heads were decked with feathers. Their yell at such times was called their *war-whoop*. In war they used bows and arrows, tomahawks (or hatchets) of iron or stone and scalping-knives of bone. They tortured their prisoners or murdered them. The scalps of their enemies were their trophies of war. They would scalp an enemy by seizing him by the hair and cutting or tearing a large part of the skin from the top of the head by use of the scalping-knife. Peace was made by the *sachems*, or rulers of the tribes, in council. Each of these sachems would smoke the same *calumet*, or pipe of peace, to show that they meant to keep their word. The calumet was made of pipe-clay, and was often adorned with feathers. The Indians used tobacco in smoking.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THE LOCATION OF
THE INDIAN NATIONS
IN THE
PRESENT UNITED STATES.
AT THE TIME OF ITS FIRST SETTLEMENT
By I. S. Clare
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200 300
Huron-Iroquois Tribes Colored Yellow
Dakota or Sioux " " Green
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
BAHAMA ISLANDS
LAKE SUPERIOR
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
LAKE ERIE
LAKE ONTARIO
OTTAWA RIVER
ST. LAWRENCE RIVER
OHIO RIVER
MISSISSIPPI RIVER
CHIPPEWAS
MENOMONIES
SACS AND FOXES
WINNEBAGOES
IOWAS
OTTAWAS
POTAWATOMIES
MIAMIS
KICKAPOOS
ILLINOIS
SHAWANEES
WYANDOTS
SENECAS
CAYUGAS
ONONDAGAS
ONEIDAS
MOHAWKS
TUSCARORAS
MANHATTANS
PANTUCKETS
MASSACHUSETTS
WAMPANOAGS
NARRAGANSETS
MAHIGONSES
PEQUODS
NIANTICOKES
DELAWARES
SHAWANEES
CHEROKEES
CATAWBAS
CHICKASAWS
CREEKS
NATCHEZ
CHOCTAWS
SEMINOLES
YAMASEES
ARKANSAS
KANSAS
MISSOURIS
50
45
40
35
30
25
92
87
82
77

Women and Children.

The Indian women were called *squaws*, and were the slaves of the men. They did all the labor for the family. They never took part in the games, but they and their children were allowed to look at the war-dances. The men were allowed to take and dismiss wives whenever they pleased. The Indians taught their rude and simple arts to their children.

Money.

The Indian money was called *wampum*, and was made of pieces of shells in the form of strings and belts. Besides being used in trade, it was used between nations and tribes as tokens of alliance and affection. Sachems, or chief men, kept wampum-belts as records of public acts.

Picture Writing.

The only written language of the Indians were rude picture-writings, with which they recorded warlike actions, deeds of brave men, and treaties of peace and alliance. But these actions and deeds were generally preserved in memory, and transmitted from father to son, and from chief to chief.

Funeral Ceremonies.

The Indians wrapped their dead in animal skins, and laid the body on sticks in the bottom of a shallow pit, or placed it in a sitting posture in the grave, or laid it on a high scaffold out of the reach of wild beasts. The trinkets, arms, tools, paints and food of the dead person were buried with the corpse, because it was thought that the soul would need them on its journey to the spirit-land. Mounds were raised over the graves, flowers were planted over them, and there the living friends mourned for many days.

Religion.

The Indians believed in a Great Good Spirit and a Great Evil Spirit. They considered the sun, the moon, the stars, meteors, fire, water, wind, thunder, and everything that they could not themselves control, as a kind of god. They also worshiped what they called *Manitou*, or the Great Master of Life. They sometimes killed animals as a sacrifice for sin. They also had some vague idea of a great flood that once covered the earth.

Government.

The chief ruler of each Indian tribe, or nation, was called the *sachem*, and was chosen because of his worth. The *chief* was the leader of the warriors, and was chosen because of his brave deeds in battle. All questions debated in council were decided by the sachem, and the warriors followed wherever the chief led. Good order always prevailed in the councils, and while one was speaking all the others listened with profound respect.

The Indian and the White Man.

Such were the savage inhabitants of the American continent when it was first found and occupied by white people from Europe. These so-called Indians were nearly all wanderers, and roamed over the lonely forests, free as the air they breathed, but did comparatively nothing to cultivate the rich soil beneath their feet. The white man at last found

this beautiful continent. He came here with the industry and arts of civilization, and changed the appearance of everything. Cities, towns, villages and farms now cover the country which a few centuries ago was one vast wilderness in which the Red Man hunted and fished.

Mexico and Peru.

The Indians of Mexico and Peru were highly civilized, having flourishing cities and towns and a regular government, and practicing many of the useful arts of civilized life. From ruins and mounds found in various parts of the present United States, it is believed that the Indians displaced a highly civilized ancient race, who are known by the general name of *Mound Builders.*

The Mound Builders.

Indian Population of the Present United States.

The entire Indian population of the territory embraced by what is now the United States at the time of the first settlement of this region is estimated to have been less than three hundred thousand, or probably not more than two hundred thousand. This Indian population was divided into eight distinct nations, each with its own language. These eight Indian nations were the Algonquins, the Huron-Iroquois, the Catawbas, the Cherokees, the Uchees, the Natchez, the Mobilians, and the Dakotas, or Sioux.

Eight Indian Nations.

Algonquins.

The largest and most numerous of these eight Indian nations was the Algonquins, who occupied the whole northern and central portion of the domain of the present United States east of the Mississippi and the greater portion of the Canadian provinces of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, except the territory of the Huron-Iroquois, around Lakes Ontario and Erie, in both what is now the United States and Canada. The chief tribes of the Algonquins were the Abenakis of Maine, which embraced the Androscoggins, the Rorridgewocks, the Penobscots and the Passamaquoddies; the Pawtuckets of New Hampshire; the Massachusetts, the Nipmucs and the Wampanoags of Massachusetts; the Narragansetts of Rhode Island; the Pequods and the Mohegans of Connecticut; the Manhattans of southern New York; the Lenni-Lenapes, or Delawares, of New Jersey and eastern Pennsylvania; the Susquehannocks of the Susquehanna valley in Pennsylvania; the Nanticokes of Delaware and the eastern shore of Maryland; the Powhatans of Virginia; the Corees, the Hatteras and the Cheraws of eastern North Carolina; the Shawanese of Kentucky; the Miamis and the Piankeshaws of Ohio and Indiana; the Pottawatomies and the Kickapoos of Indiana and Illinois; the Illinois of central Illinois; the Ottawas of the southern peninsula of Michigan; the Menominees and the Chippewas of the northern peninsula of Michigan and of northern Wisconsin; the Sacs and Foxes of Wisconsin, and others.

Huron-Iroquois, or Six Nations.

The Huron-Iroquois, occupying the region around Lakes Erie and Ontario, consisted of two great divisions—the Hurons, occupying the whole southern part of the present Canadian province of Ontario and

the north-eastern part of Ohio, embracing the Wyandots and the Attioundirons of Ontario and the Eries and the Andastes of Ohio; and the Iroquois, or Six Nations, occupying the region comprised in all of the present northern, central and western New York, northern and western Pennsylvania and south-eastern Ohio. The Iroquois, or Six Nations, were the Mohawks, the Oneidas, the Onondagas, the Cayugas, the Senecas and the Tuscaroras, the last of whom were located in southern Virginia and northern North Carolina before 1713.

Catawbas, Cherokees, Uchees, Natchez, and Mobilians.

The Catawbas occupied the central region of the Carolinas. The Cherokees held the district embraced in the western portion of the Carolinas, eastern and middle Tennessee, and northern Georgia and Alabama. The Uchees were located in central and eastern Georgia. The Natchez held south-western Mississippi. The Mobilian tribes occupied most of the southern region of the United States east of the Mississippi, and embraced the Chickasaws of western Tennessee, northern Mississippi and northern Alabama; the Choctaws of southern Mississippi and southern Alabama; the Creeks of eastern Alabama and southern Georgia; the Yamasees of eastern South Carolina, and the Seminoles of Florida.

Dakotas, or Sioux.

The Dakotas, or Sioux, held the region west of the Mississippi and north of the Arkansas, as far west as half-way between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains, and embraced many tribes, such as the Assiniboines, along the Canadian frontier; the Minnetarees, the Mandans and the Riccarees of North Dakota; the Sioux proper of South Dakota; the Puncahs, the Omahas and the Otoes of eastern Nebraska; the Kansas and the Osages of eastern Kansas; the Missouris of Missouri, and the Iowas of Iowa. The Winnebagoes of south-eastern Wisconsin were the only Dakota tribe located east of the Mississippi.

Extreme Western Tribes.

West of the eight Indian nations mentioned were many tribes, such as the Pawnees of western Nebraska; the Cheyennes and the Arapahoes of Colorado; the Comanches and the Kiowas of Texas; the Navajoes of New Mexico; the Apaches, the Pimas, the Mouaves and the Yampais of Arizona; the Utahs of northern Utah and southern Wyoming; the Bannacks and the Nez Perces of Oregon and Idaho; the Cayuses of Oregon; the Pendoreilles and the Spokanes of Washington and Idaho; the Blackfeet and the Crows of western Montana; the Flatheads of Idaho, and the Modocs of northern California and southern Oregon.

Vast Change.

Such were the savage inhabitants of the greater portion of the Western Continent, or the New World, or America, when this continent was first discovered, explored and settled by the Caucasian, or white race from Europe. A few centuries ago this vast continent, now dotted with cities, towns, villages and beautiful farms, was the home and hunting-ground of these copper-colored savages.

## SECTION V.—AZTEC EMPIRE IN MEXICO AND CONQUEST BY THE SPANIARDS (A. D. 1195–1521).

**Spanish Conquests and Colonies in America.**

HAVING given an account of the discoveries by the Spaniards, Portuguese, English and French in America, we will now proceed to a view of the Spanish conquest and colonization in America. The Spaniards made settlements in various parts of North and South America; and their greatest exploits were the conquest of two civilized Indian empires—that of Mexico in North America and that of Peru in South America. Before proceeding with the Spanish conquest of these countries, we will give a brief historical sketch of Mexico.

**Early History of Mexico.**

The history of Mexico goes back as far as the sixth century of the Christian era. The native Mexican traditions, and the remains of ancient structures which are still to be found in the country, make it evident that the primitive inhabitants were possessed of a civilization equal to that of the Aztecs, who occupied the country when it was conquered by the Spaniards; but those aborigines of Mexico are a wholly prehistoric race.

**The Toltecs.**

The Toltecs entered the valley of Mexico early in the seventh century and built the city of Tollan, or Tula, and made it their capital. Some writers believe these people to have come from Central America, while others think them to have migrated from Asia by way of Behring Strait. The Toltecs are said to have been an agricultural people, and to have understood the mechanical arts. Their cities were of the cyclopæan character, and these people originated the system of astronomy which the Aztecs afterward adopted. Early in the eighth century a Toltec kingdom is said to have been founded by Icoatizin; and this kingdom lasted five centuries, at the end of which time it fell in consequence of a long period of pestilence and civil war, and the greater portion of the Toltecs migrated southward.

**The Chichimecs.**

In the thirteenth century, soon after the Toltecs had emigrated from Mexico, the Chichimecs, a fierce savage tribe who are said to have worshiped the sun as their father and the moon as their mother, migrated from the north into Mexico. The few Toltecs who remained in the country submitted to the invading Chichimecs, who settled peacefully in the country and became amalgamated with the Toltecs. From this amalgamation sprang the Colhuis, or Culhuas, who founded the kingdom of Colhuaca.

**The Tepanecs, Techichimecs, and the Alcolhuis.**

After the immigration of the Chichimecs into Mexico a number of other tribes entered the country, the most powerful of whom were the Tepanecs, who established their capital at Atzcapozalco, and founded one of the most powerful of the Mexican states. Another of these

tribes were the Techichimecs, who founded the republic of Tlascala. All these tribes spoke the Nohoa, or Nahuatl language. Another tribe were the Alcolhuis, who were considered the most refined, and were of the same race as the Toltecs. The Alcolhuis taught the Chichimecs agriculture, the mechanical arts, and the manners and customs of city life. In the course of time the Alcolhuis became amalgamated with the Chichimecs, and the two races founded the kingdom of Tezuco, or Acolhuacan.

**The Aztecs, or Mexicans.**

The Aztecs, or Mexicans, were the last of the tribes who permanently settled in the valley of Mexico. They had been in the country as long as the other tribes, but had not chosen any permanent abode. They migrated from Azatlan, a region of the North whose location is unknown, and they seem to have made several prolonged halts on their journey southward. The first of these halts seems to have been on the shores of the Great Salt Lake in Utah. Another halt appears to have been at the Gila river, and a third in the vicinity of the Presidio de los Llanos.

**Their Migration to Mexico.**

About A. D. 1195 the Aztecs arrived in Anáhuac, or the valley of Mexico, where they led a nomadic life for the next one hundred and thirty years, during which they waged an almost constant war with the other tribes, in which their numbers were vastly diminished.

**Founding of the City of Mexico.**

In 1325 the Aztecs founded the city of Tenochtitlan, on the islands of Lake Tezuco. The name of this city was afterward changed to Mexico, in honor of the Aztec god of war, Mexitli.

**Aztec Conquest of the Other Tribes.**

The other tribes bitterly hated the Aztecs, who had a severe struggle to found their kingdom; but the Aztecs persevered, and finally increased in wealth and power to such an extent that they were enabled to reduce their enemies to subjection. The conquering Aztecs subdued the surrounding country and established garrisons at commanding points; and finally all of Central and Southern Mexico, and a part of the country to the north, were included in the Aztec Empire. As the Aztecs grew more powerful they enlarged and improved their capital until its magnificence and extent excited the wonder and admiration of the Spanish conquerors, who were familiar with the splendors of the Old World.

**Founding of the Aztec Monarchy.**

For twenty-seven years after the founding of their capital the government of the Aztecs was administered by a council of twenty nobles. In 1352 they changed their government to an elective monarchy, and chose ACAMAPITZIN, or ACAMAPICHTLE, for their first king. At first the royal power was limited, but it increased with the Aztec nation's conquests and wealth.

**Aztec Civilization and Government.**

The Aztecs made rapid progress in civilization, and soon became the most highly civilized nation in Mexico. Their peculiar civilization was of a high order. The king was elected by the nobles. The candidate

for the throne was required to be at least thirty years of age, and to have been a general in the royal armies. Military service was the basis of all rank in the Aztec state, and the nobles were the officers of the army. The Aztec king was vested with very great authority, but his powers were regulated by a fixed code of laws. The priests ranked next to the king and the nobles, and their power was restricted to spiritual matters. The priests exercised great influence, as they had charge of the education of the young, and were consulted in domestic affairs.

Aztec Laws and Institutions.

A system of rigid morality prevailed among all classes of Aztecs. Murder, theft, adultery and drunkenness were punished with death. Their civil code was as mild as their penal code was severe. A well-arranged system of courts existed in the capital and the provincial towns, at which complaints were heard and justice was administered. Marriage was encouraged, and the family relations constituted a prominent and favorable feature of Aztec life. Only the men were allowed the right to hold property.

Aztec Revenue, Army, Towns, Roads, Commerce, Etc.

The crown derived its revenues from state lands set apart in certain provinces, and from a tax upon agricultural products and a tribute consisting of articles of food and manufactured wares. The Aztec army was regularly organized, and its discipline was firm and well planned. The towns of the kingdom were connected with the capital by well-built roads, which the government kept in good repair, and an active commerce was carried on between the different parts of the kingdom. Large fleets of boats engaged in this traffic covered the lakes. No beasts of burden were used, and the Aztecs looked with wonder upon the horses which the Spaniards introduced into the country.

Aztec Art and Science.

The Aztecs carried on mining very successfully and were skillful in metallurgy. They were likewise well versed in astronomy; knew the true length of the year, the nature and cause of eclipses, the period of the solstices and the equinoxes, and the transit of the sun across the zenith of Mexico; and had a calendar which was ingenious and accurate. They possessed a remarkable knowledge of medicine, surgery, botany and natural history; and had made a wonderful progress in the science of geography at the time of their conquest by the Spaniards. Their agricultural and military implements were made of copper, bronze and obsidian. Agriculture was carried on by means of irrigation.

Aztec Religion.

The Aztecs were a deeply religious people, and were extremely zealous in the practice of the rites and ceremonies of their religion. Their religion was a polytheism. They believed in a Supreme Being, invisible, but omnipresent, omnipotent and omniscient, and requiring numerous assistants in the performance of his will, each of whom presided over some special natural phenomenon or phase of human existence.

*From Stereograph, copyright 1903 by Underwood & Underwood*

AZTEC RUINS

Façade of a Temple near Mitla, Mexico

Aztec Deities and Worship.

Huitzilopochtli, the god of war, was the chief deity and the patron divinity of the Aztec nation. Next was Quetzalcoatl, the "white god" of Mexican mythology, who taught the Aztecs the arts of peace and good government, and forbade human sacrifices. All the Aztec gods were represented by idols of clay, wood, stone or precious metals. Great numbers of priests were attached to the temples, and the religious ceremonies were conducted on a scale of the greatest magnificence. The principal religious ceremonial of the Aztecs were human sacrifices; and twenty-five hundred persons, mainly captives taken in war, are said to have been annually sacrificed on the altars of the capital.

Human Sacrifices.

Aztec Temples.

The Aztecs had two kinds of temples, low and circular, or high and pyramidal, on the tops of which the sacrifices took place. Torquemada estimates that there were forty thousand of these temples throughout the Aztec Empire. There were hundreds of them in each principal Aztec city, besides the great temple with several smaller ones within its precincts. There were other small courts with as many as six temples in each outlying quarter of the city, and there were temples on the mountains and along the public highways. The temples were solid pyramidal masses of earth cased with brick or stone, many of them being more than one hundred feet square and of a still greater height. The ascent to the temple was by a flight of one hundred and fourteen steps on the outside, so arranged that it was necessary to pass around the whole edifice four times to reach the top; and the base of the temple is believed to have been three hundred feet square. The summit of the temple was a large area paved with broad, flat stones; and on it were two towers or sanctuaries, which contained the idols of the deities, and before each of which was an altar on which a fire was kept constantly burning. The top of this remarkable edifice commanded a splendid view of the city, the lake, the valley and the surrounding mountains.

Teocalli, or Great Temple of the City of Mexico.

The most remarkable building of the city of Mexico was the great Teocalli, or temple, completed in 1486; which was encompassed by a stone wall about eight feet high, ornamented on the other side by figures of serpents in bas-relief, and pierced on its four sides by gateways opening on the four main streets. Over each gate was an arsenal; and near the temple were barracks, which were garrisoned by ten thousand soldiers. The temple was a solid pyramidal structure of earth and pebbles, coated on the outside with hewn stone. It was square, its four sides facing the cardinal points of the compass; and it was five stories high, each story receding so as to be smaller than the one below it.

City of Tenochtitlan, or Mexico.

At the time of the Spanish conquest of Mexico, Tenochtitlan, or the city of Mexico, the capital of the Aztec Empire, was a large and splendid city, being nine miles in circumference, and having about sixty thousand houses and probably a population of half a million. Most of

Its Great Palaces.

the streets were short and narrow, and were lined with mean houses. The large streets were intersected by many canals crossed by bridges. The royal palace near the center of the city was a pile of low, irregular stone edifices of enormous size. Another palace, which was assigned to Fernando Cortez when he entered the city, was large enough to accommodate his entire army.

Police of the Capital.

The capital had an efficient and vigilant police, and a thousand men were employed daily in watering and sweeping its streets. The lake that surrounded the city was very brackish, and pure water was supplied to the inhabitants by means of an aqueduct from the neighboring hill of Chapultepec, where Montezuma had a summer palace surrounded by vast and magnificent gardens.

King Montezuma II.

The Aztec king AHUITZOTL was succeeded on the Mexican throne by his nephew MONTEZUMA II., in 1502. Montezuma II. was an active and warlike sovereign, and made conquests as far south into Central America as Honduras and Nicaragua. He made numerous changes in the internal administration of his kingdom, and was distinguished for the strictness and stringency with which he executed the laws. He liberally rewarded those who served him faithfully, and expended vast sums on the public works. He maintained his court on a scale of magnificence never before equaled in Mexico. Heavy taxes were imposed upon his subjects to provide for these expenditures, and these caused frequent insurrections.

Invasion of Mexico by the Spaniards under Fernando Cortez.

As we have seen, the Spaniard Cordova discovered Mexico in 1517. In 1519, when King Montezuma II. was at the height of his power and glory, Fernando Cortez, a Spanish adventurer, at the head of five hundred and fifty Spaniards, and with ten pieces of cannon and about a dozen horsemen, invaded the Aztec Empire for purposes of conquest, landing on the eastern coast. Cortez defeated the natives who endeavored to prevent the landing, founded the city of Vera Cruz (True Cross), burned his ships, left a small garrison to defend his new conquest, and advanced into the interior.

Conquest of the Republic of Tlascala by Cortez.

Cortez first subdued the warlike republic of Tlascala, defeating the Tlascalans in four battles and entering the city of Tlascala on September 18, 1519. The natives were astonished at the fair skin and the martial prowess of the Spanish invaders, and believed them to be beings of divine origin, so that a rumor was circulated that the gods had undertaken the conquest of the country. Cortez vainly endeavored to persuade the Tlascalans to abjure their religion and to accept Christianity, but he succeeded in inducing them to acknowledge themselves vassals of the King of Spain.

Cortez remained at Tlascala twenty days; after which he resumed his march toward the city of Tenochtitlan, or Mexico, accompanied by a

force of several thousand Tlascalans who had espoused his cause. His route lay through Cholula, the inhabitants of which were induced by the Aztecs to attempt a treacherous attack upon the Spanish invaders. Cortez severely punished the Cholulans for their intended attack, after which he resumed his march to the city of Mexico, before which he arrived November 8, 1519.

**Chastisement of the Cholulans by Cortez.**

King Montezuma II. had already sent ambassadors to Cortez to warn him not to approach the capital. The Aztec king now changed his policy, received the Spanish invaders with great pomp, and assigned them one of the largest and strongest palaces in the city for their quarters. The Spaniards soon converted this palace into a fortress. They were very much surprised at the extent and magnificence of the Aztec capital, and from the very beginning they prepared to conquer it, along with the whole country.

**Reception of Cortez by King Montezuma.**

The Aztecs strongly disapproved of their king's course in permitting the Spaniards to enter the capital, and manifested their hostility to the invaders on every possible occasion. At length a party of seventeen Aztecs attacked a Spanish detachment. Cortez thereupon sought an interview with Montezuma II. in the Aztec monarch's own palace, seized him and conveyed him a captive to the Spanish quarters, and threatened him with instant death if he should give any sign to the multitude in the streets that he was a prisoner. The Aztecs would have attempted to rescue their captive king had he not assured them that he was going of his own free will to visit the Spanish commander.

**Aztec Hostility.**

**Seizure of Montezuma II. by Cortez.**

When Cortez arrived at his quarters he put his royal captive in irons, and captured and burned to death the seventeen natives who had attacked the Spaniards. He then forced Montezuma II. to take an oath of allegiance to the King of Spain, and to induce his nobles to do the same; after which he obtained from the captive monarch a sum of gold equal in value to one hundred thousand ducats.

**Cruel Treatment of Montezuma II. by Cortez.**

In this emergency Cortez was informed that an expedition from Spain had landed on the eastern coast of Mexico, under the command of Narvaez, who had come to take from Cortez the command of the Spanish troops in Mexico. Cortez left two hundred of his troops to hold the Spanish position in the city of Mexico, and hastened with seventy troops to Cholula, where he was reinforced by one hundred and fifty troops whom he had left there, after which he marched against Narvaez, who was encamped in one of the Cempoallan cities with nine hundred Spanish soldiers, eighty horses and a dozen pieces of artillery. By a bold stroke Cortez captured Narvaez and his entire force. The vanquished troops of Narvaez readily enlisted in the service of their captor, and with this reinforcement Cortez returned to the city of Mexico.

**Capture of a Rival Spanish Force under Narvaez by Cortez.**

Montezuma II. Killed by His Enraged Subjects.

Upon his return to the Aztec capital Cortez found the inhabitants in open rebellion against his troops. He brought out Montezuma and forced him to address his subjects; but the enraged Aztecs discharged a volley of missiles at their captive king, who thus received a mortal wound, of which he died several days afterward, June, 1520. Such was the melancholy fate of the last monarch of the Aztecs.

Cortez Driven from the Capital.

The Aztecs now assailed the Spaniards with desperate fury, drove them from the city, and literally annihilated their rear-guard in their retreat across the causeway leading to the mainland. The retreat lasted six days; but at length Cortez halted on the plain of Otumba, where an

Victory of Cortez.

overwhelming Aztec force attacked him, July 7, 1520, but he came forth victorious. This battle settled the fate of Mexico. Cortez instantly proceeded to Tlascala, where he collected an auxiliary force of natives, after which he speedily reduced the neighboring provinces, and again appeared before the city of Mexico, April 28, 1521.

Guatemozin's Defense of His Capital.

Guatemozin, the new Aztec king, the nephew and son-in-law of the ill-fated Montezuma II., was a man of firmness and decision. He held his capital against the Spanish invaders for seventy-seven days, during which the city was literally reduced to ruins by the Indian allies of Cortez. By the final assault, August 15, 1521, the Spaniards captured

Fall of the Capital.

what was left of the beautiful capital of the Aztec Empire. King Guatemozin sought to escape with his family by the lake; but was pursued and taken prisoner by the Spaniards, who treated him with great

Guatemozin's Cruel Death.

cruelty, putting him on a bed of fiery coals, from which he was at once released by Cortez. But Cortez soon put Guatemozin and many of his nobles to death.

Final Conquest of the Aztec Empire by Cortez.

With the conquest of the remainder of the country the same year the Aztec Empire ended, and for three centuries (A. D. 1521–1821) Mexico was a province of Spain. After effecting the conquest of the country, Cortez rebuilt the city of Mexico upon its present plan, em-

The City of Mexico Rebuilt by Cortez.

ploying a large force of natives for that purpose. He exerted himself to introduce European civilization and Roman Catholic Christianity into the country. He established a military government in the con-

His Rule in Mexico, or New Spain.

quered land with himself as its chief. In October, 1522, King Charles I. of Spain, Emperor Charles V. of Germany, issued a decree naming the conquered country *New Spain*, and appointed Cortez governor of

Natives Enslaved.

the new province. The Spanish conquerors enslaved the natives, and compelled them to work in the mines and to till the soil.

New Spain as a Spanish Viceroyalty.

In 1528 the Spanish king suppressed the system set up by Cortez, and made New Spain a Spanish viceroyalty, which it remained during the entire subsequent period of the Spanish dominion, during which period there were sixty-four viceroys, all but one of them being natives of Spain. The province continued to improve, in spite of the policy

The Divinity of Death
Sacrificial Stone

AZTEC DIVINITIES
Coddess of the Moon

Goddess of the Waters
Chacmool Statue

pursued by Spain, which aimed at little besides extracting as much treasure from the province as it would yield.

Ingratitude of Charles V toward Cortez.

Notwithstanding all his services to the Spanish crown, Cortez was treated with ingratitude by his sovereign, and he died in comparative obscurity. It was with great difficulty that he could obtain an audience from the Emperor Charles V. When one day the conqueror of Mexico rushed through the multitude which surrounded the Emperor's coach, and placed his foot on the step of the door, Charles inquired who this man was. Cortez replied: "It is he who has given you more kingdoms than your ancestors left you cities."

Conversion of the Mexicans

The Spanish conquerors devoted their first efforts to propagating the Christian religion in Mexico, and for this purpose they invited missionaries from Europe. Between the years 1522 and 1545 numbers of monks came into Mexico from various parts of Europe to assist in the conversion of the natives; and to conciliate the Mexicans many practices hitherto unknown to the Roman ritual were admitted and consecrated.

The Humane Missionaries, Sahagun and Las Casas.

The missionaries honorably exerted themselves to protect the Mexicans from the sanguinary cruelty of the Spaniards. Among these Sahagun and Las Casas were especially distinguished for their benevolent exertions in behalf of the conquered Mexicans. These two humane missionaries obtained bulls from the Pope and edicts from the Spanish government fully recognizing the claims of the Indians to the rights of humanity, and they saved the native Mexicans from the wretched fate which swept away the native population of almost every other Spanish American colony, though they failed to obtain a full measure of justice. The protection thus accorded by the regular and secular clergy to the native Mexicans caused them to be more ardently attached to the Roman Catholic Church than were the Spaniards themselves; and this attachment is still felt by the Mexicans, though their country has recovered its independence. But the native Mexicans were reduced to a condition of abject serfdom, differing little from that of the serfs of Russia or Poland.

## SECTION VI.—SPANISH CONQUEST OF PERU AND OCCUPATION OF AMERICA (A. D. 1532–1582).

The Empire of Peru under the Incas.

Peru, which was conquered by the Spaniards under Francisco Pizarro in 1532, was originally inhabited by several Indian tribes who possessed a high degree of civilization, a simple but just code of laws and a well-arranged system of government under a sovereign called the *Inca*. The Peruvian government was an absolute despotism mildly

administered, and the military class was the most favored, as the great aim of the state was territorial expansion. The civilization of the ancient Peruvians, though vastly superior to that of the Indian nations around them, was inferior to that of the Aztecs in Mexico. Education was restricted to the ruling class, and there were laws which compelled a son to pursue his father's occupation, prohibiting him from receiving an education superior to his station in life. The Peruvians had cities, and had made considerable progress in the useful arts.

**Ancient Peruvian Religion.**

The religion of the ancient Peruvians consisted in worshiping the sun, from which the Inca claimed descent. The Inca's person was considered divine. He had numerous wives, the chief one of whom was required to be his eldest sister. He also had as many concubines as he desired. His son by his principal wife, his eldest sister, was the heir to the throne. When the Inca died he was supposed to have been called home to the mansion of his father, the sun.

**Balboa's Desire to Find Peru.**

In 1512 Vasco Nuñez de Balboa, the governor of the Spanish colony of Darien, on the Isthmus of Panama, was informed by the Indians that there was a country far south of the Isthmus where gold was as commonly in use as iron was with the Spaniards. Balboa vainly endeavored to find this rich land.

**Invasion of Peru by the Spaniards under Francisco Pizarro.**

In 1524 Francisco Pizarro, a Spanish adventurer, made a voyage to the coast of Peru, but failed to accomplish anything. In 1531 the King of Spain granted Pizarro the titles of Governor and Captain-General of all the countries that he should conquer; and that adventurer sailed for Peru with his four brothers and a few followers, arriving in that country late in January, after a voyage of fourteen days from Panama. Pizarro captured and plundered a town in the province of Coaque, and was soon afterward reinforced by the arrival of one hundred and thirty Spaniards under Almagro, his second in command. The Spanish adventurers then laid the foundations of the town of San Miguel, in the valley of Tangarala.

**Civil war in Peru between Huascar and Atahualpa.**

At that time the empire of the Incas was distracted by a civil war. Huayna Capac, the late Inca, had divided his dominions between his two sons, Huascar and Atahualpa. In the civil war which had broken out between the two brothers Atahualpa had defeated his brother and taken him prisoner. He now encamped with his army at Cajamarca, whither Pizarro hastened to meet him in September, 1532, with a force of one hundred and seventy-seven men, with the professed design of acting as mediator between Atahualpa and his brother, but with the perfidious purpose of seizing the victorious Inca in the same manner that Cortez had seized the unfortunate Montezuma II. in Mexico. The Inca received Pizarro with great kindness and readily consented to an interview. The Inca visited the Spanish invaders with a

**Reception of Pizarro by the Inca Atahualpa.**

barbarous magnificence and an ostentatious display of wealth which inflamed the cupidity of Pizarro and his followers.

Atahualpa and the Spanish Priest Valverde.

On reaching the Spanish camp the Inca was addressed by Valverde, the chaplain of the invaders, in a long discourse. After a brief notice of the mysteries of creation and redemption, the priest proceeded to explain the doctrine of the Pope's supremacy. He dwelt upon the grant which Pope Alexander VI. had made to the Spanish crown, and by virtue of that grant he called upon Atahualpa to embrace Christianity at once and to acknowledge himself a vassal of the King of Spain. The Inca was utterly perplexed, and inquired where Valverde had learned such wonderful things. The priest, showing his breviary to the Inca, replied: "In this book." Atahualpa took the book, turned over the leaves, and then put it to his ear to hear what the book had to say. He suddenly flung the breviary to the ground, exclaiming: "This tells me nothing!" Valverde exclaimed: "Blasphemy! blasphemy! to arms, to arms, my Christian brethren! avenge the profanation of God's word by the polluted hands of infidels!"

Valverde's Treacherous Attack on the Peruvians.

Seizure of the Inca Atahualpa.

This solemn farce seems to have been preconcerted. Before Valverde had ceased speaking, the trumpets sounded a charge, and a dreadful fire of musketry and artillery was opened on the defenseless Peruvians. In the midst of their surprise and consternation, they were charged by the Spanish cavalry; and, as the Peruvians had never before seen a horse, the appearance of the Spanish cavalry seemed like something supernatural, and increased their dismay to utter helplessness. Atahualpa was seized and carried a prisoner to the Spanish camp, while the triumphant invaders satiated themselves with the rich spoils of conquest.

Pizarro's Treachery and Atahualpa's Cruel Death.

The unfortunate Inca endeavored to obtain his release by paying a ransom in gold equal in value to seventeen and a half million dollars. The cruel and treacherous Pizarro accepted the offer; but when he had received the gold he refused to release Atahualpa, and caused him to be tried under the most iniquitous pretenses and sentenced to be burned to death. When the Inca consented to receive baptism from Valverde his sentence was so far mitigated that he was first strangled at the stake, after which his body was burned, August 29, 1533.

The Inca Manco Capac.

Founding of Lima by Pizarro.

The victorious Pizarro then marched upon Cuzco, the ancient capital of the Incas; and, as Huascar had been slain by order of Atahualpa, the Spanish conqueror proclaimed Manco Capac, a half-brother of Atahualpa, Inca. For the purpose of establishing a new capital for Peru near the Pacific coast, Pizarro founded the city of Lima, in the valley of the river Rimac, January 6, 1535.

The Spanish conquerors treated the vanquished Peruvians with the most barbarous cruelty. At last the oppressed Peruvians, driven to

Peruvian Revolt under Manco Capac.

despair, rose in arms under Manco Capac to recover their independence, took and burned Cuzco, and massacred such of the Spaniards as they took prisoners.

Overthrow and Execution of Almagro by Pizarro.

Pizarro's Cruel Rule.

The Spanish robbers quarreled among themselves about the division of the spoils of conquest; and a civil war broke out between Pizarro and Almagro, in which Almagro was defeated, taken prisoner and executed. The triumphant Pizarro then crushed the outbreak of the Peruvians, whom he treated with the most fiendish cruelty and reduced to abject slavery. He set up a military government and ruled the province with merciless rigor. For almost three centuries Peru remained a Spanish province (A. D. 1532–1824).

Assassination of Pizarro by Almagro's Son.

Almagro's Overthrow and Execution by Castro.

When the King of Spain was informed of Pizarro's tyranny in Peru he sent Vaca de Castro over in 1540 to investigate the matter. Before Castro arrived at Lima the cruel Pizarro was assassinated by Almagro's son, who proclaimed himself governor of Peru. The younger Almagro took up arms to resist Castro, who had orders to assume the governorship in case of Pizarro's death; but Almagro was defeated, taken prisoner and executed. Castro was recognized as governor of Peru, and devoted his attention to a settlement of the affairs of the newly-acquired province.

Overthrow and Execution of Gonzalo Pizarro by Castro.

Peru as a Spanish Province.

Castro was superseded by Blasco Nuñez Vela, who had been appointed viceroy of Peru by the King of Spain, and who came charged with the duty of inaugurating a new and better system of government, and especially to liberate the Indians from slavery and to impose a fairer system of taxation upon them. These measures produced a civil war in Peru, in which the rebels were under the leadership of Gonzalo Pizarro, son of the conqueror of Peru. This civil war lasted several years, and ended in the defeat of the insurgents and the capture and execution of Gonzalo Pizarro in 1548. The government of Peru was then established on a more solid and permanent basis, and for almost three centuries Peru remained tranquil as a Spanish province.

Peruvians Enslaved and Forced to Work in the Mines.

The government which the Spaniards established in Peru was far more oppressive and iniquitous than that which they introduced into Mexico, because the Peruvian mines were almost the only objects which engaged the attention of the Spaniards from the time of their conquest of the country. The Spaniards devised a horrible system of conscription for working the mines; and all the Indians between the ages of eighteen and fifty were enrolled in seven lists, the persons on each list being obliged to work in the mines six months, so that this forced labor came on the unfortunate Indians at intervals of three and a half years. Four out of every five were supposed to perish annually in these deadly labors; and, to add to the misery of the natives, they were not permitted to purchase the necessaries of life from any except privileged

dealers, who remorselessly and unscrupulously robbed them of their earnings.

**Chili and Its People.**

At the time of the Spanish conquest of Peru, Chili was occupied by a number of kindred Indian tribes who called themselves *Alapu-che*, "the people of the land," and who spoke a common language. The northern part of Chili had been conquered by the Inca of Peru about the middle of the fifteenth century, but the Incas were never able to subdue the southern tribes.

**Diego Almagro's Unsuccessful Invasion of Chili.**

After the Spanish conquest of Peru, the Spaniards, finding that Northern Chili had been subject to the Incas, resolved to conquer that country likewise. A Spanish expedition under Diego Almagro entered Chili from Peru in 1535, and advanced southward into the territories of the Purumancian Indians, who drove them back to Peru.

**Conquest of Chili by the Spaniards under Valdivia.**

In 1540 Pedro de Valdivia, an able and prudent Spanish officer, led an expedition against Chili, defeated the Indians, and founded the city of Santiago, named in honor of the patron saint of Spain. The Indians made a desperate effort to destroy the town, but were defeated. After receiving a reinforcement from Peru, Valdivia advanced southward into the country of the Araucanian Indians, who attacked and almost annihilated his army, thus compelling him to retreat to Santiago. He returned to Peru for reinforcements; and in 1550 he came back to Santiago with a large and well-armed force, and marched southward and founded the city of Concepcion, on the present site of Penco. Four thousand Araucanians attacked Concepcion, but were defeated with great slaughter, their chief being among the slain. The war proceeded with terrible fury; and in 1559 Valdivia was captured and put to death by the Indians, who then took and destroyed Concepcion, and even marched upon Santiago, but were driven back.

**His Founding of Santiago de Chili.**

**His Defeats, Capture and Death by the Araucanian Indians.**

**Successful Resistance of the Araucanians.**

For more than a century after their arrival in Chili the Spaniards made persistent efforts to conquer the Araucanians, but always failed. In 1665 they concluded a treaty with the Indian tribes south of the Bobio, acknowledging their independence; but the war was renewed in 1723, and lasted for half a century with brief intervals of peace, until 1773. The Spaniards made Chili a viceroyalty.

**Kingdom of Quito under Spanish Rule.**

The Indian kingdom of Quito, which had also been subdued by the Incas of Peru and made a part of their empire, also came under the Spanish dominion, and was made a presidency of the viceroyalty of Peru, being ruled by Spanish governors from 1553 to 1822. The towns of Quito and Guayaquil were founded by the Spaniards in 1535, the same year as the founding of Lima.

**Towns of Quito and Guayaquil.**

The coast of Venezuela had been discovered by Columbus during his third voyage, in 1498. In 1499 Ojeda and Amerigo Vespucci explored the coast of Venezuela and Colombia; and, finding an Indian village

Discovery of Venezuela by Columbus and Amerigo Vespucci.

built on piles over the water on the shore of Lake Maracaybo, they named it *Venezuela*, or Little Venice—a name eventually applied to the entire territory of the present republic. The Spaniards soon took possession of both Venezuela and Colombia, and gold was discovered in the coast range in 1540. They founded the colony of New Granada in 1510, which became a separate viceroyalty in 1718. In the territory of Venezuela the Spaniards founded some flourishing towns—Cumana in 1520, Coro in 1527, Tocuyo in 1545, Barquisemeto in 1552, Valencia in 1555, Carácas in 1567, and Porto Bello in 1584.

Spanish Occupation and Colonization of Venezuela and New Granada.

Spanish Occupation of Upper Peru and Buenos Ayres.

Town of Buenos Ayres Founded.

The discovery of silver in the territory of Bolivia and Buenos Ayres quickened Spanish enterprise in South America. Bolivia, or Upper Peru, which had also formed a part of the empire of the Incas of Peru, came into the possession of the Spaniards after their conquest of Peru, and formed part of the viceroyalty of Peru until 1776, when it became a part of the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. Buenos Ayres was founded by the Spaniards in 1535. The colony was a part of the viceroyalty of Peru until 1776, when the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres was created, which included Buenos Ayres, with Uruguay, Paraguay and Bolivia.

Paraguay under Jesuit Missions.

The first Spanish settlement in Paraguay was Asuncion, founded in 1536. The colony prospered wonderfully, and was erected into a bishopric in 1555. In 1557 Jesuit missions were established in Paraguay, and these met with wonderful success in the Christianization and civilization of the neighboring Indians, so that two centuries later there were one hundred and fifty thousand civilized Indians in Paraguay.

St. Augustine, Florida, and Santa Fé, New Mexico, Founded by Spaniards.

While the Spaniards had thus been taking possession of and colonizing Mexico and South America during the sixteenth century, the oldest towns within the limits of the present United States were also founded by the Spaniards. In 1565 Pedro Melendez de Avilez, after massacring a colony of French Protestants that had attempted to settle on the St. John's River in Florida, founded the city of St. Augustine, on the eastern coast of Florida. In 1582 De Espejo founded Santa Fé, in New Mexico.

Spain's Vast Dominion in America.

Spanish Occupation of the Philippines.

Thus, in the sixteenth century, Spain obtained possession of Florida, Mexico, Central America, and all of South America except Guiana and Brazil, the latter of which was claimed by the Portuguese. The precious metals which Spain obtained from her American possessions contributed to make her for a time the leading power of Europe, but an inordinate thirst for the gold and silver of America caused the Spaniards to neglect agriculture and manufactures. The Spanish American colonies increased very slowly in population, and none of these were as prosperous as the Philippine Islands, which had been taken possession of by the Spaniards and settled by a colony from Mexico in 1564.

# CHAPTER XXXIII.

# STATES-SYSTEM AND REFORMATION.

## SECTION I.—FRENCH WARS IN ITALY AND RISE OF STATES-SYSTEM (A. D. 1494–1515).

Rise of the European States-System.

We now return to resume the narrative of European history, which we left off at the close of the Middle Ages and the beginning of the modern era. The common interests of the several states of Europe had been vastly multiplied by the progress of civilization. Certain events were perceived to affect all European nations alike, particularly the progress of the Ottoman Turks and the rapid growth of opinions in every European country contrary to the doctrines of the established Church. The new art of printing increased the interchange of ideas, and the founding of European colonies in America and Asia led to more intimate commercial relations between the European states. All these causes tended to develop the *European States-System*—a league of independent powers widely different in their respective constitutions, but whose relations are determined and maintained by diplomacy or by the science of international law.

Balance of Power

The preservation of the *Balance of Power*—the independence of all the European states by preventing any one of them from acquiring such a preponderance that would menace the general security—became the chief object, and demanded from every European government a vigilant attention to the affairs of other nations, thus giving rise to many alliances and counter-alliances and much diplomatic activity. States of inferior rank—like Savoy, Lorraine and the Swiss Republic—were protected by their more powerful neighbors as convenient smaller weights in the balance.

The European States.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century, Spain, under Ferdinand and Isabella, was the most powerful monarchy in Europe; while France, under Louis XII., the first of the Orleans branch of the Valois dynasty, was also a powerful monarchy; and England, under Henry VII., the first of the Tudor dynasty, had also risen into importance; but the Empire existed only in theory, the Emperor Maximilian I. being a

powerful prince only as the head of the House of Hapsburg, and Archduke of Austria, Count of the Tyrol, Duke of Styria and Carinthia, and regent of the Netherlands. In Italy the republics of Venice, Genoa and Florence were prëeminent; while the Duchy of Milan and the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily were contested between the French and the Spaniards. Scotland and the Scandinavian kingdoms occupied a secondary place; Poland was a half-barbarous kingdom on the eastern frontiers of European civilization; Hungary was a bulwark against the Ottoman Turks, whose continuous progress, under warlike Sultans, alarmed all Christendom; and Russia ranked more as an Asiatic power than a European one.

**Prodigality of Charles VIII. of France.**

During the last years of the fifteenth century King Charles VIII. of France undertook to enforce the claim to Naples which he inherited through his father from Charles of Maine. He wasted in tournaments and festivities the entire sum provided for the prosecution of his grand schemes of conquest, and he was enabled to proceed only by borrowing fifty thousand crowns from a Milanese merchant. After entering Italy he borrowed and pawned the jewels of the Duchess of Savoy and the Marchioness of Montferrat, for the prosecution of his ambitions and warlike enterprise.

**Ludovico Sforza, Duke of Milan.**

Ludovico Sforza, the uncle of the reigning Duke of Milan, had invited the French king into Italy for the purpose of obtaining his protection in the usurpation of the duchy. This prince was one of the most unscrupulous plotters of the age, and he was suspected of having poisoned his nephew, who died about that time.

**Piero de Medici, of Florence, and His Exile.**

Florence was the old ally of France; but Piero de Medici, who was then the ruler of that republic, was bound by a treaty to King Alfonso II. of Naples. A tumult which arose against Piero de Medici drove him to the opposite extreme of offering to put the King of France in possession of all the fortresses of Tuscany and to furnish him with a loan of two hundred thousand florins. The Florentines were so enraged at this humiliating subserviency of their ruler that they drove the Medici into exile, confiscated their goods and set a price on their heads.

**Savonarola, the Reformer of Florence.**

The Dominican monk and reformer Savonarola, who had foretold the coming of the French as ministers of divine vengeance for Italian corruptions—especially the notorious wickedness of Pope Alexander VI. and his family, the Borgias—now came to the head of affairs in Florence. He appeared before Charles VIII. at Lucca, and predicted for him an earthly victory and a heavenly glory on condition that he protected the liberties of Florence. The French king took up his residence in Florence, but when he proposed to tax the city and recall the Medici the Florentines rose *en masse* in defense of their rights and drove him from the city.

**The French Driven from Florence.**

ENTRY OF CHARLES VIII INTO NAPLES, MAY 12, 1495

From the Painting by F. E. Féron

Pope Alexander VI., Sultan Bajazet II. and Zizim.

Charles VIII. entered Rome with an army of fifty thousand men and a train of artillery. The personal wickedness of Pope Alexander VI. was intensified in the opinion of his contemporaries by his unnatural alliance with Sultan Bajazet II. of Turkey. Zizim, the Sultan's younger brother and hated rival, who had sought refuge with the Knights of St. John at Rhodes, was sent to France for greater security in 1483, and remained in various fortresses belonging to the order for several years; while Bajazet II. paid a liberal annual allowance for his maintenance, in order to keep him out of the way. The unfortunate Zizim was afterward committed to the Pope's keeping, and Alexander VI. made use of so valuable a prize in his negotiations with the Sultan.

French Designs.

It was well known that the King of France designed to conquer the Turks and to restore the Eastern Empire, the title to which he had purchased from Andrew Palæologus, nephew of the last reigning Greek Emperor. Pope Alexander VI. informed the Sultan that the French king was scheming to acquire possession of Zizim to further his plans against the Ottoman Empire. Bajazet II. then offered three hundred thousand ducats for the murder of his brother; and, as Zizim died within a few months, it was generally believed that his death was caused by a slow poison administered by the Pope's order.

Murder of Zizim.

Conquest of Naples by Charles VIII. of France.

As soon as the French army entered the Kingdom of Naples the Neapolitans rose in revolt against their king, Alfonso II., a cruel and detested tyrant. Seized with remorse and terror, Alfonso II. abdicated in favor of his son Ferdinand II.; but the new king's virtues were unable to retrieve his family's desperate fortunes. His infantry threw down their arms at the approach of the French; while one of his principal officers betrayed Capua to King Charles VIII., and the city of Naples rose in revolt. Ferdinand II. burned or sunk most of his fleet, placed his available troops in the fortresses near the city of Naples, and fled to Sicily with fifteen ships. The King of France entered the city of Naples the next day amid the acclamations of the people. The Neapolitan fortresses soon surrendered, and in the course of several weeks the entire Kingdom of Naples had come into the possession of Charles VIII. almost without a blow.

French Oppression in Naples.

The triumphant French king treated the Neapolitans as a conquered people. Instead of rewarding their nobles and generals, whose influence had mainly secured his triumph, he confiscated their hereditary lands and offices to grant them to his own idle followers.

Coalition against Charles VIII. of France.

The first great coalition known in European history was now formed against Charles VIII. by the arts of his former ally, Ludovico Sforza, who had gained all that he had hoped for by the French invasion of Italy, and who was alarmed by the nearness of the Duke of Orleans, the rightful heir of the Visconti to the Duchy of Milan. In March,

1495, a treaty of alliance was signed at Venice by the envoys of Pope Alexander VI., the Emperor Maximilian I., King Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain, the Venetian Republic and the Duke of Milan. A Spanish army was soon landed in Sicily, and a Venetian fleet appeared on the coast of Apulia.

**His Expulsion from Naples.**

Charles VIII. made a magnificent entry into Naples, clothed in the robes of an Eastern Emperor, carrying a globe in one hand and a scepter in the other. In the following week he fled from that city, leaving its treasury without money and its fortresses without food or ammunition, and took with him in his march northward an immense baggage-train loaded with treasure. He was encountered by an army of the allies four times as numerous as his own, at Fornovo, in Lombardy, in July, 1495, and was victorious. The French army was saved from defeat and ruin by their rich plunder, which diverted the attention of the enemy, whose disorderly ranks were easily put to flight. Charles VIII. then concluded a new treaty with Ludovico Sforza, who acknowledged himself a vassal of the French king for Genoa, and promised to take no part in the movement of the allies against France.

**Battle of Fornovo.**

**Revolt of Naples against the French.**

The French dominion in Naples was short-lived. King Ferdinand of Spain sent an army to assist King Ferdinand II. of Naples, who landed at Reggio within a week after the French king's retreat from Naples. His forces were defeated at Seminara; but the people of the city of Naples, weary of the French, rose in revolt against them and welcomed their lawful sovereign with joyful acclamations. The entire southern coast of Naples declared for Ferdinand II.

**French Loss of Naples.**

The French king's cousin and viceroy, the Duke of Montpensier, made some efforts to continue hostilities; but, as he received no assistance from France, he was obliged to conclude a treaty in which the French obtained little more than permission to return home. While waiting for transports a pestilence broke out, in which the viceroy and many of his troops perished. The Constable d' Aubigny was defeated in Calabria about the same time, by Gonsalvo de Cordova, the *Great Captain*, so called because of his career of uninterrupted victories. Ferdinand II. died in 1496, and was succeeded by his uncle Don Frederick, a prince of great talents and popular disposition, who soon wiped out every remaining vestige of French domination.

**Victories of Gonsalvo de Cordova, the Great Captain.**

**Effects of the French Invasion of Italy.**

The principal result of the wild expedition of Charles VIII. into Italy was the fatal desire for distant conquests which it excited in the sovereigns and people who had become involved in his wars; and unfortunate Italy, weakened by her own dissensions, suffered for many years from the display of her wealth and helplessness. To the refined and enervated Italians the invasion of the French seemed like a new inroad of Northern barbarians; as the carnage wrought by the well-served

artillery of Charles VIII. presented a destructive contrast to the Italian battles of the time, in which "the worst that a soldier had to fear was the loss of his horse or the expense of his ransom."

Bloodless Battles.

During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries the manufacture of defensive armor so far excelled that of destructive weapons that war became almost as safe as the peaceful contests of the chess-board. War was carried on in Italy mainly by mercenary companies of adventurers, who were hired out by their captains to any prince or city that offered the most pay or plunder; and it was the evident policy of the leaders to keep their forces undiminished, as the material for subsequent bargains. Macchiavelli mentions a decisive battle in which no man suffered any injury, and another in which one was killed by accidentally falling from his horse and being smothered in the mud.

Royal Intermarriages

Several marriages negotiated by Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain about this time had a controlling influence upon future history. The Princess Margaret, daughter of the Emperor Maximilian I. and the discarded bride of Charles VIII. of Frence, was married to John, Prince of Asturias, the eldest son of the King and Queen of Spain; while her brother Philip, the heir to the Netherlands, married Joanna, the second daughter of the same king and queen. The Princess Isabella, the eldest daughter of King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella, was espoused to King Manuel the Great of Portugal; and the Princess Catharine, the youngest daughter of the Spanish sovereigns, was betrothed to Prince Henry, the heir to the English crown, afterward King Henry VIII. By the premature deaths of the Infant of Spain, the Queen of Portugal and her only son, the whole Spanish inheritance fell to Charles, the eldest son of Philip and Joanna, who ranks as the great central figure in the history of the first half of the sixteenth century.

Martyrdom of Savonarola.

The crimes and vices of the Borgia family gave resolute energy to the preaching of Savonarola, who earnestly called upon the European sovereigns to convene a council of the Church to depose Pope Alexander VI. The Pope replied by excommunicating the "bold prophet of Florence" and all the members of his government. The fanaticism of the *Piagnoni*, or Weepers, who followed Savonarola, had strengthened two other parties in Florence; and Pope Alexander VI. took advantage of the dissensions of these parties to cause his bold antagonist to be put to death. Savonarola and two of his disciples were burned to death in the market-place of Florence, May 23, 1498.

Pope Alexander VI and His Crimes.

But Pope Alexander VI. did not escape the natural result of his crimes. His eldest son, the Duke of Gandia, had already been murdered by Cæsar Borgia, his own brother, who was Cardinal of Valencia. For several days even the Pope was struck with remorse. He openly confessed his sins and promised to reform, but he soon plunged more

deeply than ever into violent and degrading courses. He pardoned the murderer, and even released him from his vow as a prelate for the purpose of making him a great secular prince.

**Invasion of Italy by Louis XII. of France.**

Charles VIII. of France was suddenly hurried to his grave while preparing for another invasion of Italy, A. D. 1498. Louis XII., the next King of France, proceeded to enforce his hereditary claim on Milan; and in 1499 a French army of twenty-three thousand men was sent into Italy under three experienced commanders. Venice was in alliance with the King of France. The success of this expedition was as sudden as that of Charles VIII. against Naples had been. The Milanese were disaffected toward their duke, who was in such fear of popular violence that he fled into the Tyrol to solicit the assistance of the Emperor Maximilian I. While the duke was absent from Milan the Milanese declared for the French, and their example was followed by all Lombardy, which was annexed to the French dominions without a battle having been fought.

**His Conquest of Milan.**

Louis XII. crossed the Alps into Italy and entered Milan in triumph. He pleased the Lombards with fair promises of a mild, paternal government; but no sooner had he returned to France than the extortions of Trivulzio, his lieutenant, and the rudeness of his soldiery, exasperated the Milanese and revived the party of the exiled duke. Ludovico Sforza now approached with an army he had raised in Switzerland, and the French retreated to Mortara.

**Battle of Novara.**

In April, 1500, the two armies encountered each other near Novara; but the infantry on both sides was Swiss—that in the French army obtained by treaty with the Swiss government, and that in Sforza's force enlisted man by man. Sforza's recruits had received orders from the Swiss Diet not to fight their countrymen in the French army; and as soon as the battle of Novara began they retreated into the town, where they commenced a secret agreement with the French, promising to desert the Duke of Milan and to return to their homes, on condition of a safe-conduct, which was readily granted.

**Captivity of Ludovico Sforza.**

One private soldier betrayed Sforza as he was trying to pass out of the ranks of his perfidious Swiss in the disguise of a monk. He was conveyed a captive to France, and passed the remainder of his life in a dungeon. In spite of the perfidious crimes which condemn him, Ludovico Sforza had been a wise and beneficent sovereign in many respects.

**His Wise Rule.**

The great plain of Lombardy to this day is indebted for much of its productiveness to the canal by which he completed its system of irrigation. Leonardo da Vinci, the greatest artist of the time, selected Sforza for his patron and friend, and contributed much to the splendor of the Milanese court by his genius and greatness as a painter, sculptor and poet.

French and Spanish Seizure of Naples

By a counter-revolution the King of France now again came into possession of the Milanese duchy, and opened the way for his march upon Naples. King Ferdinand of Spain—the cousin and natural ally of King Frederick of Naples—had secretly turned against him, and entered into a treaty with Louis XII. to divide the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily between them. Under the pretense of a crusade against the Turks, which was duly proclaimed by the infamous Pope Alexander VI., Ferdinand of Spain had a fleet and an army ready in the ports of Sicily before the French had arrived. The Spanish king kept possession of several towns and fortresses which his cousin had entrusted to him as a friend and ally.

End of the House of Aragon in Naples.

When Frederick became aware of the disgraceful plot he abandoned Naples and Sicily rather than to subject his people to a useless war, and surrendered himself to Stuart d' Aubigny, who conveyed him a captive to France. The military renown of Gonsalvo de Cordova, the Great Captain, is sullied by his obedience to a faithless monarch. By a false oath, that great general obtained possession of King Frederick's son and heir, and sent him a prisoner to Spain. Thus ended the Neopolitan branch of the House of Aragon, which had reigned over Naples and Sicily sixty-five years.

Franco-Spanish Quarrel.

The perfidious conquerors of Naples and Sicily quarreled about the division of the spoils. The French gradually became masters of the entire kingdom, excepting Barletta and several towns on the south-western coast; but the Spaniards again came into possession by a new fraud. The Archduke Philip, on returning from Spain to the Netherlands, was commissioned to conclude a treaty with Louis XII. of France at Lyons. By that treaty it was agreed that the Kings of France and Spain should confer the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily upon two children, Charles of Austria and Claude of France, who were to be married when they became of age.

Spanish Conquest of Naples

In the meantime Philip was to be regent for his infant son and to rule at Naples, jointly with a commissioner appointed by the King of France. Relying on this treaty, Louis XII. had ordered his commanders in Italy to suspend hostilities; but Ferdinand of Spain had resolved not to be bound by the treaty, and sent secret orders to his Great Captain, who by a sudden and rapid movement surprised the French in their inaction. By their victories in the two decisive battles of Seminara and Cerignola, the Spaniards secured possession of the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily. The city of Naples and most of the other towns of the kingdom opened their gates to Gonsalvo de Cordova, and the last Frenchman had retired from the Neapolitan kingdom within three months, thus giving the Spaniards full and complete possession of that kingdom.

Crimes of Pope Alexander VI.

Taking advantage of the French invasion of Italy, the Borgias conquered many small sovereignties in Central Italy by force or fraud, and they intended to form a new and powerful "Kingdom of Romagna" from these conquered sovereignties. But Pope Alexander VI. was destined to perish by his own wicked devices. Most of the forty-three cardinals whom he appointed bought their dignities with vast sums of gold; but after they had become enriched by employments in the Church the wicked Pope caused many of them to be poisoned, so that the papal coffers might again be replenished by the confiscation of their estates and the sale of their high offices.

Accidental Poisoning of Pope Alexander VI.

The Pope designed such a fate for the Cardinal of Corneto, whom he invited with Cæsar Borgia, the Pope's son, to the Belvedere, a favorite retreat of the Pope near the Vatican. The Pope had instructed one of his servants to serve the visiting cardinal with poisoned wine. The bottles were interchanged by mistake, and Pope Alexander VI. and his son partook of the poisoned wine, as well as their unsuspecting victim. The more vigorous constitutions of Cæsar Borgia and the Cardinal of Corneto conquered the violent illness with which the poisoned wine attacked them; but the aged Pope, then in his seventy-third year, died within a week, A. D. 1503.

Cardinal d'Amboise and Pope Pius III.

The Cardinal d' Amboise, the famous prime minister of Louis XII. of France, now proved the worthlessness of the friendship purchased with worldly favors. While marching to Naples, a French army halted near Rome, to influence the election of a new Pope; but, as the Cardinal d' Amboise perceived that the election would nevertheless be against him, he gave the votes of his party to the Cardinal of Siena, who thus became Pope Pius III. The new Pope was a good old man, but his election was mainly owing to a mortal disease with which he was already prostrated, and which terminated fatally in less than a month, A. D. 1503. He had during his brief pontificate planned a general council for the reform of the Church.

Pope Julius II.

The next papal election was still more fatal to the ambition of Cardinal d' Amboise. The votes of the conclave were given to Cardinal Julian della Rovera, an active and powerful man, who thus became Pope Julius II. This warlike pontiff's reign was absorbed by two objects—the expulsion of the French from Italy, and the recovery of the alienated estates of the Church. His attention failed to be attracted by the spiritual dangers which menaced the papal supremacy more and more. He soon deprived Cæsar Borgia of his ill-gotten possessions, and immured him in the same tower in Rome where he had incarcerated many prisoners. When Borgia was released he availed himself of the safe-conduct given him by Gonsalvo de Cordova, and proceeded to Naples, where he was betrayed by that great Spanish general to King Ferdi-

Misfortunes, Captivities and Death of Cæsar Borgia.

nand, who confined him in a Spanish prison for three years. He made his escape therefrom, and perished in one of the civil wars of Navarre.

Expeditions of Louis XII. of France.

Indignant at the ill-faith of King Ferdinand of Spain and his Great Captain, Louis XII. of France hastily fitted out three expeditions—one against Naples and two against Spain. The expedition against Naples was delayed by the ambitious designs of Cardinal d' Amboise, until all its efforts were rendered futile by the lateness of the season. The valley of Garigliano had been converted into a noisome swamp by heavy rains. Hundreds of French soldiers died of malaria; but the Spanish army under Gonsalvo de Cordova, better posted and more thoroughly fed and equipped, was able to profit by the misfortunes of the French. The battle of Garigliano, December 29, 1503, in which the French were utterly routed, completed the conquest of Naples by the Spaniards. The two French expeditions against Spain met with no better success, and the deposed and captive King Frederick of Naples and Sicily negotiated a treaty of peace between France and Spain.

Battle of Garigliano.

Death of Queen Isabella of Spain.

The good Queen Isabella of Spain died in 1504, overwhelmed with grief for the losses of her family, and especially for the insanity of her daughter Joanna, the wife of Philip of Austria. King Ferdinand became regent of Castile, in his daughter's absence, though he caused Philip and Joanna to be proclaimed sovereigns of Castile. Encouraged by a party among the Castilian nobles opposed to Ferdinand, Philip wrote a discourteous letter to his father-in-law, demanding that he retire into his own kingdom of Aragon. Ferdinand replied by inviting Philip to Spain; but he sought revenge by entering into a close alliance with Louis XII. of France, and marrying Germaine de Foix, the French king's niece, who received the French claims upon the Kingdom of Naples as her dowry.

Ferdinand, Philip and Joanna.

Philip's Treaty with Henry VII. of England

Philip and Joanna sailed for Spain early in 1506; but their Netherland fleet was dispersed by a storm, and they were obliged to take refuge in an English port. Henry VII. of England took advantage of their misfortune to extort a commercial treaty from Philip, favoring England at the expense of the Netherlands, and promising the close alliance of their families by two marriages.

Philip's Death.

After being detained in England several months Philip and Joanna were allowed to proceed to Spain, where they received the allegiance of the Castilian Cortes. Ferdinand resigned all authority in Castile, retaining only the West Indian revenues and the grand-masterships of the three military orders, which Isabella's will secured to him, and sailed with his new queen for Italy. Before he arrived at Naples he was informed of Philip's sudden death. But Ferdinand was willing to have his absence regretted by the ungrateful Spaniards, who were overwhelmed with confusion and alarm by the unexpected event. Ferdi-

Ferdinand's Action.

nand proceeded to regulate the affairs of his Neapolitan kingdom at leisure, and did not return to Spain until the summer of 1507.

Joanna's Insanity.

The unfortunate Joanna's mental malady was aggravated by excessive grief for her husband's sudden death. She submitted herself entirely to her father's control, and never consented to take any part in public affairs during the remaining forty-seven years of her life. Her

Her Son Charles.

son Charles remained in the Netherlands, under the guardianship of his paternal grandfather, the German Emperor Maximilian I. Maximilian's daughter Margaret, who was then a widow for the second time, was appointed regent for the Netherlands. Her skillful diplomacy led

League of Cambray against Venice.

to the *League of Cambray*, which she negotiated with the Cardinal d' Amboise, the great French prime minister, and which was signed in the cathedral of Cambray, December 10, 1508; thus uniting King Ferdinand of Spain, King Louis XII. of France, the Emperor Maximilian I. and Pope Julius II. in a coalition against the powerful Venetian Republic.

Claims of Louis XII and Pope Julius II.

The wealth and power of Venice, which had recently been confirmed by the capture of several Greek islands from the Ottoman Turks, excited the fears and the jealousy of her neighbors. Louis XII. of France, as Duke of Milan, desired to reclaim several Lombard towns which had been secured to Venice by treaty during his wars with Ludovico Sforza. Pope Julius II. insisted upon the grants of Pepin the Little and Charlemagne, securing Rimini, Faenza and some other towns to the dominion of St. Peter.

Claims of Ferdinand of Spain and Others.

Ferdinand of Spain desired the possession of Brindisi and other maritime cities which his cousin and predecessor, King Frederick of Naples, had pledged to Venice as security for the expenses of the Venetian Republic in his cause. Padua, Vicenza and Verona were claimed as belonging to the Germano-Roman Empire by ancient right. Roveredo, Treviso and Friuli were claimed as belonging to the Austrian House of Hapsburg. The Duke of Savoy, as lineal descendant of Guy of Lusignan, the King of Jerusalem before the Third Crusade, claimed the isle of Cyprus, which had been bequeathed to Venice by Catharine Cornaro, the widow of the last reigning sovereign of the island. The King of Hungary desired to reannex the lands which Venice had conquered in Dalmatia and Slavonia.

Perfidy of Louis XII. and Ferdinand.

Florence was induced to join the League of Cambray by an act of the basest perfidy on the part of Kings Ferdinand of Spain and Louis XII. of France. Ever since the expedition of Charles VIII. of France into Italy, Pisa, which had previously been the unwilling subject of Florence, had been bravely struggling for independence. Maximilian I., as Emperor, and therefore as nominal sovereign of Italy, had been implored to espouse the cause of Pisa; but his movements were delayed

so long that "succor for Pisa" had become a proverb and a by-word in Germany.

**Florentine Occupation of Pisa.**

The Kings of France and Spain now agreed to put a garrison in Pisa, which would be readily received as friendly, but which should be instructed to open the gates of the city to the Florentine army at an appointed time. Louis XII. was to receive one hundred thousand ducats, and Ferdinand fifty thousand, for this act of royal treachery. The troops of Florence entered the half-starved city of Pisa, June 8, 1509, and, by a liberal distribution of food, exhibited greater generosity than their allies.

**Hypocrisy of the League of Cambray.**

The League of Cambray was the first great European coalition since the Crusades; and it laid the foundation of public law by raising the question whether ancient and hereditary right, the faith of treaties or general considerations of the common good shall have precedence in controlling the affairs of nations. The text of the treaty is strongly tinged with the hypocrisy of the time; as it declares the principal object of the alliance to be a war against the Ottoman Turks, and that, as a preliminary to such a war, it was necessary to put an end to the rapine, the losses and the injuries caused by the insatiable cupidity and the thirst for domination which were characteristic of the Venetian Republic. Venice was really the strongest barrier of Europe against the Turks, and was best able by her maritime power to oppose them in the seat of their dominion.

**Battle of Agnadello.**

Pope Julius II. began hostilities by a decree of excommunication against the Venetians, expressed in the bitterest terms of reproach. Louis XII. was the first to take the field; and, by a victory which he won over the Venetians at Agnadello in 1509, he gained more than had been assigned to him by the Treaty of Cambray, as he was able to send the keys of Verona, Vicenza and Padua to the Emperor Maximilian I.

**Venice Frees Her Italian Dependencies.**

Reduced to desperate straits by the number and strength of their enemies, the Venetians adopted the masterly plan of freeing all their Italian dependencies, thus throwing upon the subject cities the burden of their own defense, and narrowing the frontiers of the Venetian Republic to the islands at the head of the Adriatic which had been the Republic's original territories. They also surrendered to Ferdinand of Spain the towns which he had demanded in Apulia, and made dutiful professions of submission to the Emperor and the Pope.

**Venetian Occupation and Defense of Padua.**

The barbarities which the French and the Germans committed aroused the peasantry of all North-eastern Italy to espouse the cause of Venice. A Venetian force retook and garrisoned Padua. Maximilian I. besieged that town with an army of forty thousand men, but was finally forced to retire and to disband his army, after which the Venetians recovered many cities.

**Pope Julius II. and the French.**

Pope Julius II. had now gained all that he desired for the territories of the Church, and he turned his attention to the expulsion of the French from Italy. He relieved Venice from the interdict, and concluded an alliance with the Swiss Republic, which had quarreled with the King of France, and which now agreed to furnish more than six thousand of their best halberdiers to the Pope's service.

**Julius II., Ferdinand and the Duke of Ferrara.**

The Pope propitiated the King of Spain by the feudal investiture of the Kingdom of Naples, and commuted the tribute formerly received from that realm into an annual offering of a white horse and an aid of three hundred lances in case of an actual invasion of the States of the Church. The Duke of Ferrara had incurred the Pope's wrath by yielding in everything to the counsels of the King of France, and the ambassadors of France and Ferrara were at once dismissed from the papal court.

**French and German Cruelty at Vicenza.**

The allied French and German armies were still prosecuting hostilities in Northern Italy in the most cruel manner. Vicenza had speedily returned to its alliance with Venice after the repulse of the Emperor Maximilian's army at Padua, and was now exposed to the vengeance of the Germans. All its inhabitants who were able to do so removed their families and their property to Padua, but the remainder took refuge with the peasantry in a vast cavern in the mountains near the city. The French soldiery filled the entrance to the cave with light wood, to which they set fire, thus smothering all who were in the cave, six thousand in number.

**Pope Julius II. and His Swiss Allies.**

Just when the two fortified towns of Porto Legnano and Monselice had yielded to the allied French and German armies, the scale was turned against the Germans by the Pope's declaration of war against the Duke of Ferrara, and by a simultaneous attack by his Roman and Swiss forces upon Genoa and Milan. The Venetians promptly took advantage of the changed situation, and recovered Vicenza and many other towns; but the papal officers failed to excite a revolt in Genoa against the French; and the Swiss who had entered the plain of Lombardy found themselves entrapped among the many rivers and harassed by the movements of their foes, and were thus obliged to retreat hastily to their own country.

**Pope Julius II., Louis XII. and Maximilian I.**

After the death of the Cardinal d' Amboise the French clergy assembled at Lyons and called upon Pope Julius II. to lay down weapons so inconsistent with his spiritual dignity and to submit his complaints to a general council of the Church. A new treaty signed at Blois between King Louis XII. of France and the Emperor Maximilian I. provided for the sending of French troops into the field.

Pope Julius II. was enraged by these movements of his enemies, and pushed his warlike operations with increased vigor. He was almost

taken prisoner by the French at Bologna, while prostrated by a dangerous illness; but he contrived to occupy their general by negotiations until a Venetian army, including a detachment of Turkish cavalry, arrived. The fiery old pontiff laid siege to the fortresses of Concordia and Mirandola amid the snows of a most rigorous winter. Encased in armor, his white hair covered by a steel helmet, he appeared on horseback among his troops, sharing all their hardships and perils, and encouraging them with promises of rich plunder. When the fortress finally surrendered, he entered by a ladder at the breach which his guns had effected, being too impatient to wait for the opening of the gates.

**Siege and Capture of Concordia and Mirandola by Pope Julius II.**

In a congress which the Emperor Maximilian I. had opened at Bologna the warlike Pope made an unsuccessful effort to detach the Emperor from his alliance with the King of France, and the haughty demeanor of the imperial secretary rendered peace impossible. Being seized with a panic the Pope fled from Bologna; and the French pursued his army, and captured its great standard, twenty-six cannon and an enormous quantity of baggage. The Bolognese received back the Bentivoglios, their former masters, and destroyed the bronze statue of Pope Julius II., which was regarded as one of Michael Angelo's greatest works.

**Flight of Julius II. from Bologna.**

A new coalition, called the *Holy League*, was now formed against the French by Pope Julius II., King Ferdinand of Spain and the Venetian Republic; while King Henry VIII. of England and the Emperor Maximilian I. were secret parties to the alliance, but did not openly avow their designs until the interests of each could be best secured. The King of England was promised the duchy of Guienne, along with the title of "Most Christian King," which were to be taken from the King of France. The Emperor Maximilian's romantic mind was now occupied with an unusually visionary scheme. The Pope's illness had inspired the Emperor with the idea of taking holy orders and becoming the successor of Julius II. in the Chair of St. Peter, assuming in advance the title of Pontifex Maximus, which the Popes had inherited from the Cæsars.

**Holy League against Louis XII. of France.**

Pope Julius II. united in his person the genius of a military commander with the ambition of a temporal sovereign; while Louis XII. of France was holding ecclesiastical councils, and the Emperor Maximilian I. in his old age commenced sighing for the dignity of a Pope and the life of a saint. Louis XII., the object of the jealousy of Julius II., was the only one who scrupled to fight against the Pope, and voluntarily relinquished advantages which he had acquired, rather than to do injury to Christ's Vicar on earth; while Henry VIII. of England, who afterward destroyed the papal supremacy in his own realm, was on this occasion won to the Pope's side by the artful flatteries of Julius II.

**Julius II., Louis XII., Maximilian I. and Henry VIII.**

Victories of Gaston de Foix, the Thunderbolt of Italy.

The French armies in Italy were under the command of Gaston de Foix, nephew of Louis XII. and brother-in-law of Ferdinand of Spain —a young nobleman of remarkable talents, whose short and brilliant career astonished Europe and acquired for him the title of the *Thunderbolt of Italy*. By a swift and determined movement he threw his army into Bologna, which the allies were then besieging. The forces of the Holy League at once fled; and Gaston de Foix strongly guarded Bologna and then rapidly marched into Lombardy, where he ascertained that two cities had driven away their French garrisons or taken them captive. He defeated the Venetians near Isola della Scala before dawn by the light which the stars reflected from the snow. He took Brescia by storm and gave the city up to plunder and massacre. Bergamo escaped a similar fate by prompt submission and the payment of a ransom.

Battle of Ravenna.

The King of France now ordered his victorious commander to fight one decisive battle, and, if victorious, to march upon Rome, depose Pope Julius II. and dictate terms of peace. In executing this plan, Gaston de Foix marched toward Ravenna, driving the allied army before him. The great battle of Ravenna, which was fought April 11, 1512, has been described as "one of those tremendous days into which human folly and wickedness compress the whole devastation of a famine or a plague."

Victory and Death of Gaston de Foix.

The French general, who claimed the Kingdom of Navarre, and who considered the King of Spain his personal enemy and rival, bared his left arm so that he might bathe it in Spanish blood. The artillery of the Duke of Ferrara, from one end of the crescent-shaped line of the French army, kept up a destructive cross-fire, mowing down entire ranks of the Spanish and papal troops. The French were victorious in the cavalry charge which followed; but the serried ranks of the Swiss, bristling with the points of their long lances, like a Macedonian phalanx, had to sustain a harder struggle with the short swords and the Roman drill of the Spanish infantry. The Swiss columns were only rescued from destruction by the French cavalry, led by the gallant Gaston de Foix himself, who won the victory by the sacrifice of his life. On receiving the fatal tidings, Louis XII. exclaimed: "Would to God that I had lost all Italy, and that Gaston were safe!"

French Triumph and Expulsion from Italy.

In the midst of the panic of the allies all Romagna fell into the power of the victorious French. Rome trembled, and the iron-hearted Pope Julius II. was ready to accept the French king's conditions of peace. But in a few weeks the entire situation was changed. The French soldiery were dispirited by the death of their gallant commander. The German lancers were withdrawn, and the Duke of Ferrara negotiated a separate peace with the Pope. The council which

convened at Rome three weeks after the battle of Ravenna opposed the terms of peace offered by France. Pope Julius II., the Emperor Maximilian I. and the Swiss Republic united in making Maximilian Sforza, Ludovico's son, Duke of Milan. The French forces, under La Palisse, fled before the allies to Pavia, and thence, after a sanguinary battle, into their own country. At the close of June, 1512, only three towns and three fortresses in Italy remained in the French king's possession.

**Dissolution of the Holy League.**

But, after the expulsion of the French from Italy, the Holy League fell to pieces from its own dissensions. Pope Julius II., who was resolved upon enlarging the States of the Church to their former limits, wrested the cities of Parma and Piacenza from the new Duke of Milan, and sent his nephew to occupy the Duchy of Ferrara, while he kept the now pardoned and reconciled Alfonso a prisoner at Rome. The Emperor Maximilian I. sent a German army to prey upon the territories of his new allies, the Venetians; while the Swiss kept possession of the three districts of the Valtelline, Locarno and Chiavenna, and levied forced contributions upon the Milanese and deposed their new duke, Maximilian Sforza.

**Cardinal John de Medici and Florence.**

The late allies agreed upon the necessity of chastising Florence for her neutrality during their wars, by bestowing power in the Florentine Republic upon the party which was able to pay the highest price. Cardinal John de Medici had been taken prisoner in the battle of Ravenna, but escaped in the confusion during the French retreat from Milan. He was now sent with a Spanish army to revolutionize Florence and to restore the dominion of his family. This force took the suburban village of Prato and subjected it to a brutal massacre and pillage.

**Restoration of the Medici in Florence.**

The Florentine government, in utter dismay, deposed its chief magistrate, and accepted all the terms of the allies, including the payment of a vast sum of money to the Emperor Maximilian I. and King Ferdinand of Spain, and the restoration of the Medici as private citizens only. Julian de Medici, the youngest son of Lorenzo the Magnificent, entered Florence, followed soon afterward by his brother, the cardinal, who, in a packed assembly of the citizens, procured a thorough reversal of the Republic and the establishment of a narrow oligarchy headed by Julian.

**John de Medici becomes Pope Leo X.**

Upon the death of Pope Julius II., the next year, A. D. 1513, John de Medici was elected Pope by the conclave of cardinals, with the title of Leo X. Leo X. had derived from his illustrious father and the brilliant freethinkers of the New Academy as much regard for pagan mythology as for the Christian religion, but his mind had been improved by travel and the conversation of the greatest and wisest men of his time. He had an excellent taste in art. His court was celebrated for

the highest elegance and the most profuse magnificence. He had remarkably charming and amiable manners.

**His Italian Policy.**

Leo X. differed from his stern and warlike predecessor in governmental principles as much as in manners. He dissolved the Holy League and made peace with France. He pursued his predecessor's policy of expelling all foreigners from Italy, for the purpose of uniting the entire peninsula under the rule of the Medici. His brother Julian was unfitted by his imbecile character for administering the government of a freedom-loving people, and therefore abdicated in favor of his nephew, Lorenzo II., and accepted the office of Captain-General of the Church, which his brother, the Pope, conferred upon him; and thus Florence became the slave of a despotic master.

**Spanish Conquest of Navarre.**

In the meantime the English army which was to have been transported to the coast of Guienne in Spanish vessels had been landed in Spain by the order of King Ferdinand, who sought to enlist the English commander, the Marquis of Dorset, in his own schemes against the Kingdom of Navarre. The English declined to engage in actual hostilities against Navarre; but their presence as allies of Spain so overawed the Navarrese that the Duke of Alva, the Spanish general, was able to conquer the entire Kingdom of Navarre. That little kingdom was annexed to Spain; while its native sovereigns, who still retained their royal titles, only kept possession of the little principality of Bearn, on the north side of the Pyrenees.

**Coalition against France.**

In April, 1513, Margaret, regent of the Netherlands, concluded a new treaty at Mechlin between her father the Emperor Maximilian I., Ferdinand of Spain, Henry VIII. of England and Pope Leo X., by which the contracting parties bound themselves to invade France from four different points, while still pursuing their combined hostilities against the French king in Italy.

**French Conquest and Loss of Lombardy.**

Louis XII. hastened his preparations; and in May, 1513, his generals subdued all of Lombardy, except two towns, by a series of brilliant victories. The Italians, who were by this time equally disgusted with the inefficiency of Maximilian Sforza and the brutality of the Swiss, welcomed the French on every side. But the reaction was as sudden and rapid as the advance. The French were obliged to raise the siege of Novara in consequence of fresh arrivals of Swiss, and were defeated and driven beyond the Alps within a few days.

**English Victories over the French and the Scots.**

The English army under King Henry VIII. arrived at Calais, and was joined by the Emperor Maximilian I. in the siege of Terouenne; but the English victory in the "Battle of the Spurs," in which the French cavalry fled at the first onset, decided the fate of Terouenne, which surrendered and was destroyed, to the dismay of the Parisians. Several weeks after the Battle of the Spurs, September 9, 1513, King

James IV. of Scotland, the generous ally of Louis XII. of France, was defeated and slain by an English army under the Earl of Surrey at Flodden Field, in the north-east corner of England.

Swiss Venality

The invasion of Burgundy by German and Swiss troops in the Emperor Maximilian's pay was defeated by bribery. This was the most disgraceful period in the history of the Swiss Republic, when the brave Swiss mountaineers successively sold themselves to the highest bidders, not content with once exchanging their blood for the gold of their purchasers.

Royal Alliances and Intermarriages.

The eventful year 1513 was signalized by still greater changes. Before it ended, Louis XII. had become reconciled with Pope Leo X., and sought the friendship of the Emperor Maximilian I. and King Ferdinand of Spain, for the purpose of furthering his designs upon Milan. As Anne of Brittany, the consort of Louis XII., died in January, 1514, he became the ally of Maximilian I. by engaging to marry the Emperor's granddaughter, Eleanora of Austria; while his own daughter Renée was affianced to the Archduke Charles, the heir to the sovereignty of Spain and the Netherlands, as the grandson of Ferdinand and Isabella, and of the Emperor Maximilian I. and the Duchess Mary of Burgundy.

Alarm of Pope Leo X.

This projected alliance of families alarmed Pope Leo X. by its threatened union of Austria, France, Spain and the Netherlands into one vast dominion, which would have inevitably destroyed the newly cherished balance of power in Europe. With the support of two English prelates, the Pope arranged a new marriage-treaty, by which Louis XII. espoused Mary, the sister of Henry VIII. of England. This royal wedding occurred at Abbeville, in October, 1514; but the festivities in honor of the marriage proved fatal to the already failing health of Louis XII., who breathed his last on January 1, 1515.

Second Marriage and Death of Louis XII.

Francis I. of France, A. D. 1515–1547.

The Princess Claude, the eldest daughter of Louis XII., was already married to Duke Francis of Angoulême, the representative of the younger branch of the House of Orleans. As Louis XII. left no son, this prince at once became King of France with the title of Francis I.; and the duchy of Brittany, or Bretagne, thenceforth remained a part of the Kingdom of France.

## SECTION II.—WARS OF EMPEROR CHARLES V. WITH FRANCIS I. OF FRANCE (A. D. 1515–1547).

Francis I., of France.

Francis I., the new King of France, was twenty-one years of age, gay, brilliant and equally fond of pleasure and military glory. The cares of government in France fell into the hands of his mother, whom

His Mother.

he made Duchess of Angoulême and Anjou. The queen-mother gathered the ladies of the noblest families around her, and under her auspices the French court first became noted for its elegance and extravagant gayety. The penetrating wit of French women, veiling profound art with consummate grace, has ever since exerted a good or evil influence in the affairs of France.

Chancellor Duprat and Constable de Bourbon.

The Chancellor Duprat and the Constable de Bourbon—both of whom had been raised to their dignities by the queen-mother's favor—acted very conspicuous parts in the history of the reign of Francis I. Pedro Navarro, a famous military engineer, who had long been in the service of King Ferdinand of Spain, having been wronged by that

Pedro Navarro.

sovereign, entered the armies of France; and from the recruits which he raised among the mountaineers of the Cevennes and the Pyrenees he presented Francis I. with the powerful assistance of regiments organized upon the model of the Spanish infantry.

Designs on Milan.

The new French king at once assumed the title of Duke of Milan, and prepared to prosecute the claims of his dynasty in Northern Italy. A Swiss army guarded the passes of Mont Cenis and Mont Genèvre—the only western Alpine passes considered practicable—and was stationed in the Italian plain near the exits from the valleys.

French Invasion of Italy.

In this emergency the French forces, numbering sixty-four thousand men, with seventy-two great and three hundred smaller cannon, performed one of the most remarkable transits mentioned in history. Guided by chamois-hunters, the two great French generals, Trivulzio and Lautrec, with the engineer Navarro, pioneered a more southerly route over the Col d' Argentière. This path, which was scarcely passable by the sure foot and the practiced eye of the mountaineer, was prepared by the skill and genius of Navarro for the transportation of heavy artillery. Bridges were placed across from one dizzy height to another. Masses of solid rock were disposed of by charges of gunpowder. Cannon were swung from peak to peak by means of ropes. The French army suddenly surprised the enemy by appearing on the Lombard plain.

French Successes.

A small division of cavalry, which had crossed the Alps by another route never before trodden by horses, had in the meantime surprised Prosper Colonna, the Pope's general, at Villa Franca, with seven hundred of his troops. The main army proceeded by way of Turin, the Swiss retiring before them to Milan and Novara; while a detachment marched southward and recovered Genoa and the entire region south of the Po by a bloodless victory.

Battle of Marignano.

A decisive battle fought at Marignano, about ten miles from Milan, September 14–15, 1515, transferred the Duchy of Milan from Maximilian Sforza to King Francis I. of France. The Swiss, after being

reinforced by twenty thousand of their countrymen, burst upon the French quarters unexpectedly late in the afternoon. The fierce onset and the furious resistance rendered the result doubtful, and at midnight the exhausted combatants took a rest until daybreak. The French king slept on a gun-carriage, and rallied his troops at dawn with sound of trumpet. The Swiss retired in good order when a Venetian detachment appeared upon the scene. Francis I. was knighted on the battle-field by the Chevalier Bayard, "the knight without fear and without reproach."

**Alliances of Francis I. with the Medici and the Swiss.**

Maximilian Sforza retired to France on a pension. Francis I. now entered into a close alliance with the Medici, the oppressors of Florence; thus sacrificing most of the advantages of his great victory at Marignano, and allowing himself to be persuaded by Pope Leo X. to postpone his attack upon Naples until the death of its sovereign, King Ferdinand of Spain. The French king made a treaty of peace and alliance with the Swiss at Geneva, thus gaining the important right to levy troops in Switzerland. He then disbanded most of his army, and appointed the Constable de Bourbon his viceroy in Milan, after which he retired into France.

**Coalition against Francis I.**

Before the French king had left Italy, Pope Leo X. was conspiring with the Emperor Maximilian I., and with Kings Henry VIII. of England and Ferdinand of Spain, to invest Francisco Sforza with the Duchy of Milan, notwithstanding the fact that the Pope's recognition of the title of Francis I. to that duchy had been almost the only article in the Treaty of Bologna that favored the French king. But the coalition against Francis I. was disconcerted by the sudden death of King Ferdinand of Spain, in January, 1516.

**Death of Ferdinand of Spain.**

**Perfidious Character of King Ferdinand of Spain.**

The friends and enemies of Ferdinand expressed their various estimates of his character in his titles. "Spain called him the Wise; Italy, the Pious; France and England, the Perfidious." We cannot help regarding the last of these epithets deserved when we are reminded of his ingratitude toward Columbus and Gonsalvo de Cordova, or the base deception by which he deprived his cousin Frederick of the crown of Naples. But he was the most successful sovereign of his time, and even his avarice and duplicity laid the foundation for the ascendency of Spain during the sixteenth century, while his bigoted and intolerant policy introduced the elements of her sudden and fatal decline.

**Spain's Ascendency.**

**Maximilian's Invasion of Lombardy**

The Emperor Maximilian I. fulfilled his part of the treaty by invading Lombardy in March, 1516, with a large force of German, Swiss and Spanish troops. The French general, Lautrec, was obliged to retire to Milan; while the other French commander, the Constable de Bourbon, burned the surrounding villages, for the purpose of depriving the enemy of all shelter.

The Swiss Soldiers in the French and German Armies.

Thirteen thousand Swiss in the French army refused to fight their countrymen in the Emperor Maximilian's army, which was now approaching; and the Constable de Bourbon was reluctantly obliged to dismiss them. But the Emperor's good fortune deserted him when it seemed within his grasp. His coffers were empty and his troops unpaid, as usual; and the Swiss colonel entered his bed-chamber one morning and bluntly told him that he would lead his followers over to the service of the French if their pay was not forthcoming.

Disbanding of Maximilian's Army.

Maximilian then left his army and made a hasty journey to Trent under pretense of collecting money; but he failed to return, whereupon his army disbanded, and its dispersed companies consoled themselves for their arrears of pay by pillaging several unoffending towns. The menacing war-cloud disappeared; and Maximilian I., conscious of the ridicule which he had incurred, never again led an army into the field.

King Charles I. of Spain, A. D. 1516–1556.

Upon the death of King Ferdinand of Spain, in January, 1516, his celebrated prime-minister, Cardinal Ximenes, proclaimed his grandson, the Archduke Charles of Austria, as King of Spain, at Madrid, which had recently become the capital of Spain. Thus the Archduke Charles, who was also the grandson of the Emperor Maximilian I., and lord of the Netherlands, became CHARLES I. of Spain.

Ximenes and the Navarrese.

The Navarrese made an unsuccessful effort to restore the House of Albret; and Cardinal Ximenes wreaked a terrible vengeance upon the conquered kingdom, destroying its towns, villages and castles, two thousand in number, reserving only Pampeluna and a few places on the Ebro as military posts from which he might hold the Navarrese in awe.

Kings Charles I. and Francis I.

The exposed situation of Navarre and the Netherlands induced King Charles I. of Spain to cultivate the friendship of King Francis I. of France. By the Treaty of Noyon, Charles agreed to marry the infant daughter of Francis I., who was to have all her father's claims to Naples as her dowry; and already the Spanish monarch addressed the French sovereign, who was scarcely older than himself, as "My good father."

Peace of Brussels.

The Peace of Brussels, in December, 1516, closed the wars arising from the League of Cambray and the Holy League. In the fall of 1517 King Charles I. visited his Spanish kingdom for the first time since his accession to the Spanish throne, and the cloud which rested upon the mind of Queen Joanna was dispelled for a moment by the unexpected meeting. But the Spaniards were disgusted with the insolent rapacity of the Flemish courtiers who accompanied their new king and absorbed his confidence. A constant stream of gold flowed from Spain into the Netherlands, drawn from the Spanish offices and pensions.

King Charles I. and His Flemish Court.

The aged minister, Cardinal Ximenes, from his sick-bed addressed a letter to King Charles I., soliciting a personal interview. The Flem-

Dismissal and Death of Cardinal Ximenes.

ings feared the great minister's influence, and persuaded the king to reply in terms which veiled the coolest and basest ingratitude under the forms of courtesy, dismissing Ximenes from all his offices except that of bishop. This ungrateful treatment from a sovereign whom Ximenes had served so well and faithfully brought on a relapse of the fever which had already conquered the great minister's iron frame; and he died at the age of eighty, with his last breath commending his university at Alcala to the king's favor.

His Polyglot Edition of the Bible.

Cardinal Ximenes rendered his name illustrious by his Polyglot edition of the Bible—the greatest literary work of his time, and one of the greatest glories of the University of Alcala. This work was the production of nine scholars, deeply learned in the ancient languages, and sustained by the patronage and guided by the counsel of Ximenes. The Old Testament contained the original Hebrew, with Chaldaic, Greek and Latin versions. The New Testament contained the Greek and Vulgate versions. The type was cast at Alcala under the eye of Ximenes, as none yet existed in the Oriental character. The most ancient Hebrew texts were discovered among the confiscated property of the exiled Jews.

His Abilities and Character.

Besides his zeal for learning and his great ability as a statesman, Cardinal Ximenes possessed military talents. In 1509 he undertook to chastise the Moors of Africa for their depredations on the coast of Spain. He himself captured Oran by storm, and in pursuance of his plans several important Moorish fortresses became permanent possessions of Spain. The darkest side of his character belongs more properly to the age in which he lived. During his eleven years' presidency of the Inquisition, he "permitted," in the language of Llorente, two thousand five hundred and thirty-six persons to be burned to death, while fifty-one thousand one hundred and sixty-seven endured less severe punishments.

King Charles I. and the Castilians.

The Chancellorship of Spain, thus made vacant by the death of Cardinal Ximenes, was conferred upon a Fleming; and his Primacy was bestowed upon another Fleming. The Castilian cities, which had been early given a voice in national affairs, now united in defense of their rights and addressed a petition to King Charles I., complaining of the illegal appointment of foreigners to high offices in Spain, and also of the increase of taxes and the exportation of coin. The king paid no attention to their complaints, but the Junta afterward threatened to overthrow the monarchy in Spain.

Charles I. of Spain becomes Emperor Charles V.

Upon the death of the Emperor Maximilian I., in 1519, three kings became candidates for the imperial throne—Charles I. of Spain, Francis I. of France and Henry VIII. of England. The seven Electors of the German Empire chose the King of Spain, who thus became Emperor

with the title of Charles V. As Maximilian's grandson and as Archduke of Austria and lord of the Netherlands, Charles had the best claim to the imperial dignity. Conscious of the vast powers they were bestowing, the seven Electors required Charles V. to give a solemn guarantee of all their privileges; and the Elector-Palatine, with the Archbishops of Mayence, Trèves and Cologne, formed the *Electoral Union of the Rhine* for common defense.

**His Vast Dominions.**

The Emperor Charles V. was the most powerful monarch that had reigned in Christendom since the time of Charlemagne, and his dominions were far more extensive than those of Alexander the Great or those of Augustus Cæsar. As we have seen, while yet a youth he was lord of the rich and flourishing Netherlands, which he inherited from his father Philip, the son of the Emperor Maximilian I. and the Duchess Mary of Burgundy. As we have also seen, on the death of his maternal grandfather, King Ferdinand of Spain, in 1516, he obtained the crown of Spain, with Naples, Sicily, Sardinia and the Spanish possessions in America; inheriting these through his mother Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. And lastly, as we have just noticed, on the death of his paternal grandfather, the Emperor Maximilian I., in 1519, he succeeded by inheritance to the hereditary Austrian territories, and by election to the imperial throne of Germany. His Spanish dominions were enlarged by the conquest of Mexico by Cortez in 1521, and by the conquest of Peru by Pizarro in 1532. He soon bestowed his hereditary Austrian estates on his brother Ferdinand, who, as we shall presently see, added the Kingdom of Bohemia and a large part of Hungary to the possessions of the House of Hapsburg, A. D. 1526.

**His Accession to the Imperial Throne of Germany.**

Charles V., having been born in 1500, was therefore only nineteen years of age when he became the leading prince of Christendom upon his election to the imperial throne in 1519. At this early age he gave but little promise of the commanding character by which he was subsequently distinguished. He was sluggish in mind and weak in body; but his motto "*Non Dum*" (Not Yet), which he assumed at his first tournament, expressed some consciousness of unawakened power. His Spanish subjects were extremely offended by his acceptance of the imperial crown; and the Spanish Cortes very reluctantly voted him a grant of money, to enable him to make a suitable appearance in his new dignity.

**His Rivalry with Francis I. of France.**

Francis I. was deeply offended by the election of Charles V. to the imperial throne, and became his rival and enemy. Four wars arose between the two monarchs, caused by the conflicting claims of each to the possession of Milan, Naples, Navarre and Burgundy. Charles V. demanded the restitution of Burgundy, which had been confiscated from

his grandmother, the Duchess Mary, by Louis XI. of France. He inherited the right of the Hohenstaufen and Aragonian dynasties to the Kingdom of Naples, while Francis I. represented the House of Anjou. As Emperor, Charles V. became sovereign of the imperial fiefs in Italy, including the Duchy of Milan, which Francis I. claimed as head of the House of Orleans. All these rival claims of Charles V. and Francis I. afforded so many pretexts for indulging their mutual ambition and jealousy.

**His Alliance with Henry VIII. of England.**

Charles V. and Francis I. each wished to secure the favor of the vain and capricious Henry VIII., who had ascended the throne of England upon the death of his father, Henry VII., in 1509, and who was, like themselves, a candidate for the imperial throne. On his way to Germany, after his election to the imperial throne, Charles V. visited Henry VIII. in England, for the purpose of diverting him from any alliance with Francis I. The Emperor won the English king's favor by gifts and promises to his celebrated Prime Minister, Cardinal Wolsey, while Henry VIII. was already opposed to Francis I. by his desire to renew the conquests of Henry V. in France.

**Interviews of Henry VIII. with Francis I. and Charles V.**

Henry VIII. nevertheless proceeded to that celebrated interview with Francis I. at Calais, during the splendid festival of two weeks in June, 1520, known as the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*, because of the magnificence displayed on that occasion. In reading aloud his state-paper, prepared for the occasion, Henry VIII. is even said to have dropped his own customary title of "King of France." The Emperor Charles V. waited at Gravelines for the meeting of the Kings of England and France to be over; and afterwards passed some days with Henry VIII. at Calais, for the purpose of removing any favorable impression which the French king might have made upon him.

**Coronation of Charles V.**

Charles V. was crowned as Emperor-Elect at Aix la Chapelle, in October, 1520; and in January following he held his first Diet at Worms, where events of the most momentous importance were transacted, which will be fully related in the next section.

**Four Wars of Charles V. with Francis I.**

In the meantime, during the progress of the Reformation in Germany, the Emperor Charles V. was engaged in four wars with King Francis I. of France—the first of that long series of wars between Austria and France that lasted with but brief intervals of peace for almost two centuries (A. D. 1520–1714). The first of these four wars began in 1520 and lasted six years.

**First War.**

**French Conquest of Navarre.**

The war began on the side of Navarre, which little kingdom was invaded by a French army under Andrew de Foix, a relative of the deposed King of Navarre, who quickly and easily effected the conquest of the kingdom, as almost all of its fortresses had been destroyed. He then sought to join the insurgents in Spain, who had secured control of

the imbecile Queen Joanna, and who in her name endeavored to expel the regent appointed by Charles V.

Castilian Bill of Rights.

The Castilian Junta demanded that Charles V. should reside in Spain, not in Germany or the Netherlands; that he should appoint no foreigner to any civil or ecclesiastical office in Spain, and that he should convene the Cortes once in three years. The independence of the Cortes was guarded by a rule that none of its members should receive any place or pension from the king. Judges were to be maintained by regular salaries, and were forbidden to receive any portion of the fines or forfeitures of persons whom they condemned; while bishops were to reside in their dioceses at least half the year; and indulgences were to be sold in Spain only with the consent of the Cortes, and the proceeds therefrom were to be applied entirely to wars against the Moslems.

Castilian Revolt and Defeat.

Charles V. rejected this bill of rights, whereupon the Castilian Junta appealed to arms; but the insurgent army of twenty thousand men was defeated, and its leader was executed. The king's army prevented a junction of the rebels with the French force under Andrew de Foix;

Spanish Recovery of Navarre.

but when this French commander laid siege to a Castilian town even the Castilian insurgents turned against him and drove him into Navarre, where he was defeated, mortally wounded and taken prisoner, dying several days later of his wounds; and the Spaniards rapidly recovered Navarre.

Alliances of Pope Leo X. with Francis I. and Charles V.

By successively allying himself with Charles V. and Francis I., Pope Leo X. obtained the duchy of Urbino and the lordships of Modena, Reggio, Perugia and Fermo. In 1521 he united with the King of France to expel the Spaniards from Southern Italy, which was to be divided between the Pope and the French king's second son. As Francis I. delayed the ratification of this treaty, Pope Leo X. made a counter alliance with the Emperor Charles V. to drive the French from Northern Italy. The Pope allowed the Emperor to seize the territories of Venice in return for promising to extirpate the Lutheran heresy in Germany—an agreement which was signed in the presence of the German Diet, on the same day with the Edict of Worms, issued by the Emperor against Luther and his supporters.

Fruitless Peace Conference at Calais.

Three months afterward a conference was held at Calais between the envoys of the Pope, the Emperor and the Kings of France and England. Henry VIII. had offered his mediation between Francis I. and Charles V.; and his great Prime Minister, Cardinal Wolsey, was courted

Promises of Charles V. to Cardinal Wolsey.

and flattered by the two rival sovereigns, each of whom desired to gain the English king's favor. The Emperor pledged his vast influence to secure the Papacy to Wolsey at the death of Leo X., having already granted the English Prime Minister an annual pension of ten thousand ducats. The Conference of Calais failed to accomplish anything, as

the conflicting claims of the rival monarchs could not be reconciled. Francis I. demanded the two kingdoms of Naples and Navarre; while Charles V. insisted that the King of France should relinquish Milan and Genoa, restore Burgundy and release the Emperor from homage for the Netherlands.

Alliance of Charles V., Henry VIII. and Pope Leo X.

Immediately afterward the Emperor of Germany and the King of England concluded a treaty by which each agreed to invade France with an army of forty thousand men, while the Pope excommunicated the King of France and absolved his subjects from their allegiance. Another treaty was afterward concluded between the Emperor Charles V., King Henry VIII. and Pope Leo X., by which all three agreed to take rigorous proceedings against heretics in their respective dominions; and Leo X. conferred the title of *Defender of the Faith* upon Henry VIII., who had just written a Latin work against Luther and the Reformation.

French Navarre.

The Albrets recovered all that part of Navarre north of the Pyrenees, and ever afterward retained possession of it. In the Netherlands the French took the town and fortress of Hesdin, but lost Tournay. In Italy, the principal seat of the war, the able French general Lautrec, a cruel and rapacious tyrant, as viceroy of Milan, enriched himself at the expense of the inhabitants; but the French king soon lost Milan through the dissensions of his court.

Lautrec's Misrule in Milan.

Spanish Capture of Milan.

One of the two hostile parties at the French court was led by Louisa of Savoy, the mother of King Francis I.; the other by the Countess of Chateaubriand, the sister of the great general, Lautrec. The twenty thousand Swiss troops in Lautrec's service, discontented for want of pay, either marched home or deserted to the Emperor Charles V. Lautrec was besieged in Milan, and when the Spanish infantry made a night attack upon the Roman gate of the city that gate was opened by the Emperor's partisans in Milan, whereupon Lautrec and his brother fled.

Wickedness of the French King's Mother and Unjust Execution of Semblancai.

Francis I. severely reproached his general for the loss of Milan. Lautrec threw the entire blame on Semblançai, the French Minister of Finance, for having failed to send him money for the payment of his Swiss troops, thus causing them to desert his standard. Semblançai declared that he had paid the money to the king's mother, and offered to produce her receipt therefor; but the wicked Louisa, who had applied the money to her private use, had bribed a clerk in the treasury to steal the receipt; and the venerable Semblançai, respected for his years and his integrity, was sentenced to be executed, being thus sacrificed to screen the queen-mother's crime. The Chancellor Duprat, who was envious of Semblançai's influence over the king, who always called the aged minister "My father," was concerned in this crime. Duprat was then employed to raise money, which he effected by the most illegal and scandal-

ous methods, alienating the royal domains, selling public offices to the highest bidder, and doubling the already oppressive taxes.

French Losses in Italy.

The fortress of Milan was still held by the French, but almost all the Lombard cities opened their gates to the Emperor's troops. The imperial troops also took Parma and Piacenza, and occupied them for Pope Leo X. according to treaty. Leo X. is said to have died of joy in consequence of these successes, but other accounts say that he was poisoned. He was forty-five years of age at his death, and had reigned eight years (A. D. 1513–1521). The victorious allies were thrown into confusion by this event. The papal army was disbanded for want of funds; and Urbino, Perugia and other places gladly received back their native rulers.

Death of Pope Leo X.

Pope Adrian VI. and His Self-denying Humility.

The next Pope, Adrian VI., who had been regent of Spain, was chosen to the Chair of St. Peter in 1522, after a long and violent contest in the conclave of cardinals. His scholastic education made him a bitter antagonist of Luther, but he was an honest man and deplored the corruptions of the Church. He began his reign with stern efforts at reform, entering Rome barefooted, in scorn of the luxury of his predecessors, and turning with horror from the sculptures which Leo X. had collected in the Vatican, exclaiming: "These are pagan idols!" He kept but one old servant for his household. The elegant courtiers of Leo X. looked on with disgust, which was increased when the new Pope sought to replenish his exhausted finances by abolishing many useless and expensive offices; but the common people of Rome regarded his self-denying humility with enthusiastic reverence.

French Retirement from Italy.

After being again defeated by the Emperor's troops, the French retired from Italy, surrendering all but the three citadels of Milan, Novara and Cremona. The Germans also took Genoa, of which Antoniotto Adorno became Doge.

New Alliance of Charles V. with Henry VIII.

The departure of the regent Adrian from Spain upon his election to the Papacy made it necessary for Charles V. to return to that discontented kingdom. He visited England on his way from Germany to Spain, and renewed his agreement with Cardinal Wolsey by fresh promises, at the same time flattering the English nation by making the Earl of Surrey his admiral and inducing Henry VIII. to declare war against the King of France.

Neutrality of Burgundy Franche-Comte, Lorraine and Savoy.

Francis I. secured his eastern frontier by a treaty with Margaret, the Emperor's regent in the Netherlands, by which he promised not to invade or attack her territory of Franche-Comté for three years. The frequent renewals of this treaty left Burgundy and Franche-Comté in the enjoyment of peace, industry and prosperity for more than a century, while the Austro-French wars were raging around them. The three duchies of Savoy, Lorraine and Bar were likewise neutral terri-

FRANCIS I AND CHARLES V VISITING THE TOMBS OF THE FRENCH KINGS IN ST. DENIS

From the Painting by A. J. Gros

tories; and these, along with Franche-Comté, thoroughly covered the eastern side of France.

Oppressive Rule of Charles V. in Spain.

For the next eight years (A. D. 1521–1529) Charles V. resided in his Kingdom of Spain, being absent all that time from his Empire of Germany. He won the hearts of his Spanish subjects by his lenity to those who had rebelled during his absence; by adopting the Spanish dress, language and manners, and by excluding all foreigners from civil or ecclesiastical offices. But he strengthened his own power at the expense of the popular liberties, by making the three estates of the Spanish Cortes meet in separate places, thus dividing their strength; by winning individual representatives of the commons to his interest, and by prohibiting all debate except in the presence of a presiding officer appointed by himself.

Suppression of the Cortes.

Cruel Policy of Charles V. toward the Moors in Spain.

Charles's policy toward his Moorish subjects was as unjust as his grandfather Ferdinand's treatment of the Jews. The refined and industrious Moors contributed vastly to the prosperity of Spain, while being allowed toleration for their own religion, but living in obedience to Spanish laws. In 1525 Charles suddenly resolved to force them to accept Christianity, causing their copies of the Koran to be seized and their mosques to be closed, and exiling from Spain all who were not baptized before a specified date, but preventing them from reaching Africa by closing all the Spanish ports against them except Corunna, in the extreme North-west of the kingdom.

Still Harsher Cruelty and Oppression.

Charles afterward issued a harsher edict, confiscating the goods of all Moors who refused to embrace Christianity, and selling them into slavery. This atrocious policy caused a revolt among the Moors, thousands of whom were slain, while a hundred thousand succeeded in escaping to Africa. Those remaining in Spain conformed with reluctance to the Spanish rites, customs and language, but were deprived of all privileges and reduced to the condition of beasts of burden.

French Defeat in Italy.

Pope Adrian VI. formed a powerful coalition against Francis I., whom he held responsible for the failure of Christendom to unite in a crusade against the Ottoman Turks, who had resumed their career of conquest. In 1523 the King of France sent another army into Italy to recover Milan; but his undertaking failed, in a great measure through the conduct of his wicked mother, Louisa of Savoy, whose injustice toward the Constable de Bourbon made that powerful French nobleman the most bitter enemy of the French court, and caused him to enter the service of the Emperor Charles V. against his own king and country.

Defection of the Constable de Bourbon.

His Vast Estates, Honors and Wealth.

The Constable de Bourbon possessed by inheritance and marriage four duchies, four counties, two viscounties, and many smaller lordships in the center of France; and he might even have hoped to inherit the

French crown itself in case his kinsman, King Francis I., died without sons. His great military services had been rewarded with the highest dignities and revenues, but his cold and haughty temper did not suit the king's jovial disposition, and the court favorites delighted to annoy so powerful a rival.

**His Unjust Treatment from the Mother of Francis I.**

On the death of the Constable's wife Susanna, the heiress of the elder branch of the House of Bourbon, the king's mother desired to marry him; but the Constable, who utterly detested Louisa's vices, expressed his dislike for her in such strong language that the king was provoked to strike him. Louisa's love for the Constable was thenceforth turned to the most inveterate hatred, and she resolved to ruin him. She put in a claim to all the Bourbon possessions in right of her mother, who represented another branch of the House of Bourbon, and obtained a decision from the Parliament of Paris in her favor, also securing to herself the private revenues of his mother-in-law, Anne.

**His Plot with Henry VIII. and Charles V.**

Thus deprived of everything and reduced to the verge of ruin, the proud heart of the Constable de Bourbon sought bitter revenge; and in a moment of desperation he opened negotiations with the Emperor Charles V. and with Henry VIII. of England to betray his country into their hands. An arrangement was effected for the partition of France between Charles V., King Henry VIII. and the Constable. The hereditary dominions of the Bourbons, with Lyonnois, Dauphiny and Provence, were to be erected into an independent sovereignty for the Constable himself.

**Allied Invasion of France.**

The plot seemed about to succeed. The English army landed at Calais, and was joined by an imperial force from the Netherlands, after which the united forces marched to within thirty-three miles from Paris.

**Constable de Bourbon in the German Service.**

But the invasions of France on the sides of Germany and Spain failed, and the French king's discovery of the conspiracy prevented the Constable de Bourbon's vassals and retainers from executing their part in the transaction. The Constable fled into Germany, and was received with open arms by the Emperor Charles V., who entrusted him with the command of his armies.

**Pope Clement VII.**

In this emergency Pope Adrian VI. died, A. D. 1523; whereupon the Cardinal Giulio de Medici was chosen by the conclave of cardinals, and assumed the title of Clement VII. Thus Cardinal Wolsey was a second time disappointed, and was obliged to content himself with the dignity of papal legate, or nuncio, in England, to which extraordinary powers were attached.

**Heroic Death of the Chevalier Bayard.**

In the spring of 1524 the Constable de Bourbon entered Italy as the Emperor's Lieutenant-General. The allies forced the incompetent Bonnivet, the commander of the French forces, to retreat into France. In a battle near Romagnano, during this retreat, the Chevalier Bayard,

*le chevalier sans peur et sans reproche*, "the knight without fear and without reproach," was mortally wounded. Unwilling that the retreating army should be delayed by his misfortune, he ordered himself to be placed against a tree with his face toward the enemy. In this condition he was found by the Constable de Bourbon, who lamented that the vicissitudes of war had reduced so noble a knight to such a fate; but the dying chevalier replied: "I am not an object of pity, Sir Duke. I die happy in having performed my duty to my king and country. It is you who deserve pity, who are bearing arms against your native land, forgetting that the death of every traitor is violent, and his memory detested."

**His Chivalric Character**

This favorite hero of the age was the last model of chivalry that appeared in Europe. Though he held only the rank of captain, he really possessed more influence than any general, from the universal respect and admiration inspired by his high character. He had been taken prisoner by the English in the Battle of the Spurs in 1513. He was the ancestor of the Bayard family which has represented the State of Delaware in the United States Senate at different times for a century.

**Bourbon's Invasion of France and His Retreat.**

The German imperial army under the Constable de Bourbon and the Marquis Pescara now invaded France by the Cornice Road, captured Aix, Toulon and Frejus, and besieged Marseilles; but on the approach of Francis I. with a powerful army the Constable raised the siege and beat a precipitate retreat into Italy, pursued by the King of France with a well-equipped army of thirty thousand men.

**Siege of Pavia by Francis I.**

With characteristic imprudence, Francis I. laid siege to the strongly fortified town of Pavia, which was defended by a numerous garrison, under the command of Antonio de Leyva, an able general. The imperial generals, who were the viceroy Lannoy and the Constable de Bourbon, made the greatest efforts to collect a numerous army for the relief of the garrison of Pavia. The inactivity and indiscretion of the French king, who weakened his army by sending detachments against Naples and Savona, operated in favor of the imperialists.

**Battle of Pavia.**

Bourbon resolved to attack the French in their intrenchments; and on the night of February 23–24, 1525, his army stormed the French camp, while at the same time the garrison of Pavia made a furious sally, thus placing the French between two fires. After a most sanguinary conflict, the French army was almost totally destroyed. Ten thousand brave warriors were either killed in the encounter or drowned in the waters of the Ticino. The chivalrous Francis himself, after a gallant defense, was unhorsed and taken prisoner. He was recognized by an attendant of the Constable de Bourbon, who advised him to surrender. The chivalrous king scornfully refused to become the captive of his

**Francis I. a Prisoner.**

traitorous vassal, but called for Lannoy and surrendered his sword to that commander.

Magnitude of this French Disaster.

This was the greatest disaster that the French had suffered since the battle of Poitiers, as their king was a captive, and the flower of their nobility and soldiery was left dead on the sanguinary field. Bonnivet was among the slain, and when the Constable de Bourbon saw his dead body he exclaimed: "Unfortunate man, you have ruined France, yourself and me!" The French army was permitted to retreat into France, and within a fortnight the last French soldier had recrossed the Alps. The captive Francis I. conveyed the sad intelligence of the great catastrophe to his mother in a single line: "Madame, all is lost but honor."

Its Effects.

The battle of Pavia produced joy in Spain, terror in France, jealousy in England and dissatisfaction in Italy. When the news reached Madrid, Charles forbade all public rejoicings, and sought to dissemble his natural exultation over the event. France was stricken with terror, and Paris was guarded as if the triumphant foe was already at its gates. The captive king's mother, who assumed the regency in this perilous crisis, had by her intrigues alienated those who should have been her best supporters.

Constable de Bourbon and the Dukes of Alencon and Vendome.

Of the leading French princes of the blood royal, the Constable de Bourbon was declared a traitor; the Duke d' Alençon, the king's brother-in-law, had disgraced himself by cowardice in the battle of Pavia, and had since died of vexation and chagrin; and the Duke of Vendôme, an enemy to the queen-mother, was suspected of a secret understanding with the traitor Constable, but he silenced all suspicions by generously forgetting his grievances and joining the queen-mother at Lyons.

The Count of Guise and the Parliament of Paris.

The Count of Guise, the founder of a family destined to act an important part in the future history of France, rendered good service by suppressing a peasant revolt which had spread from Germany into the French provinces of Lorraine, Champagne and Burgundy. The Parliament of Paris, which had assembled at once upon the sad tidings of the king's captivity, presented a long list of grievances, and demanded redress as a condition of granting supplies or adopting measures for the public defense. One of their demands was for the extermination of the Lutheran heretics, who were held responsible for all the calamities that had befallen France; and two of these pious and unoffending persons were soon burned to death at Paris.

Captivity and Illness of Francis I.

Four months after the battle of Pavia the captive Francis I. was conveyed into Spain and incarcerated in the tower of the Alcazar at Madrid. He was attacked by a dangerous illness, brought on by mortification and anxiety; and Charles V., who had not hitherto deigned to visit his former "good father," "friend" and "brother," now feared

that his royal prisoner would die without signing the severe conditions of peace which he desired to exact from him. He visited the captive monarch in prison, and a few words from the triumphant Emperor so raised the spirits of his illustrious prisoner that his health improved.

Visited by Charles V.

The recently widowed Duchess of Alençon, the favorite sister of Francis I., undertook an embassy to Spain, with full authority to negotiate a treaty of peace between the two sovereigns; but she did not succeed in obtaining easy terms for her royal brother. Charles V. insisted upon a partition of France, by which he was to have Burgundy, Picardy and all the other territories of Charles the Bold of Burgundy; while Provence and all the Bourbon possessions were to be formed into a new kingdom for the Constable de Bourbon; and Normandy, Guienne and Gascony were to be bestowed on Henry VIII. of England. Thus the dominions of Francis I. would have been reduced to the territorial extent of the possessions of the first Capets.

Harsh Peace Demands of Charles V.

In January, 1526, Francis I., worn out with his incarceration in the gloomy tower of the Alcazar at Madrid, swore to the Peace of Madrid "on the word and honor of a king." By this treaty the King of France agreed to cede the duchy of Burgundy and the counties of Flanders and Artois to the Emperor Charles V., renounced all claim to Naples and Milan, and restored to the Constable de Bourbon all his former possessions. He had previously told his ambassadors that he had acted under compulsion, and that he had no intention of executing the conditions which he was about to sign. Nevertheless, the treaty was confirmed by his betrothal with the Emperor's sister Eleanora, the widowed Queen of Portugal. Two of the French king's sons were then delivered to Charles V. as hostages for the fulfillment of the treaty, and Francis I. bound himself to return to captivity if he did not relinquish Burgundy within four months.

Peace of Madrid.

Francis I. was then released and escorted to the French frontier, March 18, 1526. His joy at his release was unbounded. When he was once upon his own soil he mounted a Turkish horse; and, putting him at full speed and waving his hand over his head, he exclaimed aloud several times: "I am yet a king!"

Release of Francis I

No sooner had the King of France been again free and in his own dominions than he refused to ratify the treaty which had been extorted from him while a prisoner, on the plea that he must first consult the Estates of France and Burgundy on a matter of such importance. When the Burgundian Estates convened at Cognac they insisted, according to prearrangement, that the King of France could not annul his coronation-oath by any subsequent agreement. The Burgundian envoys likewise asserted that they would forcibly resist any effort to alienate the duchy of Burgundy from the crown of France.

His Refusal to Ratify the Treaty.

**His Lack of Honor.**

Francis I. then offered the Spanish ambassadors, who were present, two million crowns as a compensation for Burgundy, and promised to fulfill every other condition of the treaty. When Charles V. was informed of this evasion he remarked that it was easy for the King of France at least to redeem his personal honor by returning into captivity in Spain; but the honor of Francis I. was not of the same kind as that of Regulus, or that of his own ancestor, King John the Good; and Pope Clement VII. soon absolved him from his engagements with the Emperor.

**Holy League against Charles V.**

In the meantime the Italians had been thrown into consternation by the decisive victory of their powerful ally at Pavia, as all Italy appeared to be at the Emperor's mercy; and a *Holy League* was formed against Charles V. by Pope Clement VII., the Duke of Milan, the Venetian Republic and the King of France. Francisco Sforza had been restored to the Duchy of Milan only as a vassal; and his Chancellor, Morone, now contrived a plot to destroy the unity and freedom of Italy at one blow. The second war between Charles V. and Francis I. thus began, and lasted three years.

**Second War of Charles V. with Francis I.**

**Pescara's Treason and Treachery.**

Pescara, who was an Italian by birth, but a Spaniard by descent, was known to be disaffected toward the Emperor. He ascertained through a trusty messenger that all the Italian states were ready to unite in making him King of Naples if he would disband the imperial army which he commanded, and thus aid in delivering Italy from the German and Spanish yoke. When Pescara discovered that this conspiracy was already known in Madrid he determined upon a counter-plot to meet the advances of the Milanese. He therefore invited Morone to a personal interview, and concealed the Spanish general, Antonio de Leyva, behind the tapestry. When the unsuspecting Chancellor had fully disclosed his master's plans he was seized, thus finding himself Pescara's victim rather than his partner.

**Constable de Bourbon as Duke of Milan.**

Charles V. then deprived Francisco Sforza of the Duchy of Milan and bestowed it upon the Constable de Bourbon. Pescara died several weeks afterward. Morone remained a prisoner in Milan until the Constable de Bourbon, wanting money, first sentenced him to death, and then released him upon the payment of a ransom of twenty thousand ducats. The Milanese people, who had endured new miseries at every change of masters, hailed the Constable de Bourbon's arrival in the hope of a firm and settled government. The Constable promised to remove his army, which had been quartered upon the citizens of Milan, upon the payment of three hundred thousand crowns; but, when that sum was raised, the imperial troops still refused to evacuate the city, and some of the Milanese committed suicide in utter despair on account of their hopeless situation.

Capture of Rome by Cardinal Colonna.

Pope Clement VII. soon endured greater misfortunes than the Milanese. Cardinal Colonna, a man of revengeful and lawless disposition, an old enemy of the Pope, but to whom he had been formally reconciled, suddenly raised an army of his own vassals and retainers, and marched against Rome. The Pope was besieged in the Castle of St. Angelo in September, 1526, and was forced to surrender in three days for want of provisions. Colonna's freebooters plundered the Vatican and St. Peter's Church. The Kings of France and England hastened to send money and troops to His Holiness; and Clement VII. was soon enabled to inflict a terrible vengeance upon the Colonnas, whose palaces in Rome were leveled with the ground, while their country estates were ravaged by the papal troops.

Revenge of Pope Clement VII.

March of Frundsberg and the Constable de Bourbon on Rome.

In May, 1527, Rome suffered a more serious calamity. Frundsberg, the celebrated Lutheran general, marched from Germany into Italy at the head of eleven thousand brigands, who had enlisted in his service in the hope of plunder rather than of pay. Frundsberg's force formed a junction with the Constable de Bourbon's unpaid and hungry troops at Milan, and this united German and Spanish army marched against Rome. On their way they were met by a papal embassy proposing a truce; but the soldiery, who were resolved upon their coveted prize, openly mutinied, and leveled their spears at their general's breast while he was seeking to pacify them. Frundsberg was so stung by their ingratitude that he fell into violent convulsions, from which he never recovered; and his soldiers, struck with remorse too late, subsided into order, only reiterating their cry of "Rome! Rome!"

Their Capture of Rome by Storm.

On the evening of May 5, 1527, the German and Spanish army arrived before the walls of Rome, and the next day the Eternal City was taken by storm and plundered by the soldiers of the leading Catholic prince of Christendom. The assault began in the morning, and the Constable de Bourbon was shot in the side while placing a ladder with his own hands. When he found that he must die he covered his face with his cloak, so that he might not be recognized, and breathed his last while his victorious troops were entering the papal capital. The Spanish and German troops selected the Prince of Orange for their general.

Bourbon's Death.

Pillage of Rome.

For two weeks the German and Spanish soldiery filled the religious capital of Christendom with the horrid scenes of massacre, pillage and desecration, and seized the treasures which had been the accumulation of so many centuries. The pillage of Rome by the Germans and Spaniards on this occasion equaled that of the Goths and the Vandals, more than a thousand years before. Convents, churches and dwelling-houses were plundered; and nearly eight thousand Romans were massacred on the day of the capture of the city. Pope Clement VII. was besieged in his Castle of St. Angelo, and soon obliged to surrender himself.

Pope Clement VII. a Prisoner.

Action of Florence, Venice and Ferrara.

The Florentines took advantage of the presence of the German imperial army in Italy to expel the Medici and to place themselves under the protection of France, thus seeking to restore the republic which Savonarola had set up. Venice recovered Ravenna and Cervia, and the Dukes of Urbino and Ferrara took revenge for their former disasters by seizing several cities in the States of the Church.

Hypocrisy of Charles V.

Charles V. affected great sorrow and displeasure at the insults suffered by the Head of the Church, but was inwardly pleased at the Pope's humiliation; and, instead of ordering the release of the Holy Father, the hypocritical Emperor commanded prayers for the liberation of the Pontiff to be offered in all the churches in his dominions, and attired himself and his court in mourning. Clement VII. was liberated six months after the capture of Rome, upon the payment of a ransom of several hundred thousand crowns of gold. He promised to convene a general council to reform the Church and suppress heresy, and also engaged to cease meddling in the affairs of Milan and Naples.

Release of Pope Clement VII.

French Successes in Italy.

A French army under Lautrec had already marched into Italy; and a French fleet commanded by Andrea Doria, the great Genoese admiral, besieged Genoa, expelled the Doge Adorno, and appointed a governor in the name of the King of France. Lautrec took Pavia by storm and sacked the town, in revenge for its resistance to Francis I. and his consequent disaster there in 1525. As Pope Clement VII. was now liberated, Lautrec marched into Southern Italy, and laid siege to Naples in conjunction with a Genoese and Venetian fleet. Had not the French king withheld the necessary supplies for his army, and offended the Dorias of Genoa by unjust treatment, Naples would have been taken. Andrea Doria deserted Francis I. and entered the service of Charles V., and sailed to Naples and forced the French to raise the siege. Lautrec had already died of a pestilence which had carried off most of his army.

Expulsion of the French from Genoa.

This fourth invasion of Italy by the armies of Francis I. was a failure. The Prince of Orange was made viceroy of Naples for Charles V. The French were driven from Genoa, and that republic was reorganized under the Emperor's protection. The old struggle of Guelfs and Ghibellines was ended by a more just and efficient constitution, by which public affairs were intrusted to a Council of Four Hundred; and Genoa was entirely free from revolutions thereafter until the French conquest of that republic in 1797.

Mutual Desire for Peace.

Both the rival monarchs were by this time weary of the war. The King of France, disheartened by his losses and the enormous expenses of the contest, was willing to relinquish his claims to Milan and Naples, which he perceived that he was unable to maintain; while the Emperor, alarmed at the rapid progress of the Reformation in Germany, desired peace with his rival in order to devote his entire attention thereto.

LUTHER, MELANCHTHON, POMERANUS, AND CRUCIGER

From the Painting by P. A. Labouchère

Ladies' Peace of Cambray.

The second war between Charles V. and Francis I. was ended by the Peace of Cambray, in July, 1529—called the *Ladies' Peace*, because it was negotiated by the Emperor's aunt and the French king's mother. Francis I. retained the duchy of Burgundy, but relinquished all his pretensions to Italy, along with the feudal sovereignty of the counties of Artois and Flanders. Charles V. received an indemnity of two million crowns in lieu of his claims to Burgundy, and Francis I. was to aid him with a fleet and a subsidy of two hundred thousand crowns when called upon. The King of France also agreed to marry Eleanora, the queen-dowager of Portugal, the Emperor's sister. The sons of Francis I., who had been held as hostages at Madrid, were released, and accompanied the Emperor's sister from Spain. In July, 1530, she became the wife of the French king. Thus ended the wars which the French had waged in Italy during the reigns of three of their kings, and which embraced a period of thirty-six years (A. D. 1494–1529).

Turkish Conquests.

In the meantime, while the Emperor Charles V. was engaged in devising means to resist the progress of the Reformation in Germany, and in his wars with Francis I. of France, his attention was also occupied in opposing the alarming progress of the Turks under their mighty Sultan, Solyman the Magnificent, whose rapid conquests spread dismay throughout Christendom.

Sultan Solyman the Magnificent in Hungary.

On the death of Selim I. in 1520, after a short but active and vigorous reign of eight years, his illustrious son, SOLYMAN THE MAGNIFICENT, the greatest of all the Turkish Sultans, ascended the Ottoman throne. In the summer of 1521 Solyman invaded Hungary, captured the strong fortresses of Sabatz, Semlin and Belgrade, and conquered and annexed the southern part of the Hungarian kingdom, along with the Banat.

His Conquest of Rhodes.

In 1522 Solyman besieged the Knights of St. John in their stronghold, the isle of Rhodes, with an army of one hundred and ten thousand men and a fleet of three hundred ships. The Knights of St. John, under their renowned Grand Master, L'Ile Adam, were compelled to surrender to overwhelming numbers, December 21, 1522, after a long and valiant resistance. The Knights of St. John were then forced to retire from Rhodes, which they had held since the Crusades; and the Emperor Charles V. presented to them the isle of Malta, which they held until 1798.

His Continued Conquests.

In 1526 Europe was again thrown into the utmost consternation by the successes of Sultan Solyman the Magnificent. During the four years since his conquest of Rhodes, in 1522, he had completed the conquest of Egypt and shaken the very foundations of the Persian kingdom of the Suffecans; after which he again turned toward Europe, declaring himself Emperor of the West as well as of the East, and

designing to make Constantinople once more the capital of the civilized world.

**His Invasion of Hungary.**

Hungary was Solyman's first point of attack, and that kingdom had been reduced to the most deplorable weakness and poverty by the civil wars of its magnates. While the royal Council of Tolna was still wrangling about means to resist the Turkish invasion, the approach of the Turks was announced by the smoke of a burning town. Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, having crossed the Drave with three hundred thousand men, was in full march northward.

**Battle of Mohacz.**

King Louis II. of Hungary, with only twenty thousand men, made a stand against the immense hosts of the Ottoman Sultan in the marshy plain of Mohacz, in August, 1526. His army consisted mainly of heavily armed cavalry; while the Grand Turk had availed himself of the latest improvements in firearms, and had a thoroughly disciplined infantry and three hundred well-mounted cannon in his camp. The dashing valor of the Hungarians was useless, as the flower of their nobility soon lay dead on the sanguinary field; and their young king perished in the marsh while seeking to make his escape, being then only nineteen years of age.

**Defeat and Death of Louis II. of Hungary.**

**Turkish Capture of Buda.**

The triumphant Sultan marched toward Buda, burning towns and villages in his advance. After occupying the Hungarian capital for a fortnight he retired, taking with him the valuable library founded by Matthias Corvínus, and several works of art which were used to adorn Constantinople.

**Archduke Ferdinand of Austria Becomes King of Bohemia and Hungary.**

The death of King Louis II. at Mohacz left the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia vacant, and these were claimed by the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, the brother of the Emperor Charles V., because he had married a sister of the unfortunate Louis II. Ferdinand was crowned at Prague as King of Bohemia, in February, 1527; but he found a formidable competitor for the Hungarian crown in John Zapolya, the greatest of the Hungarian magnates and the lord of seventy-two castles, and who was supported by the money and influence of Francis I. of France and Pope Clement VII. Zapolya received the crown of St. Stephen in November, 1526; but a party among the magnates pronounced in favor of Ferdinand, who marched with a large army from Bohemia into Hungary, won the battle of Tokay, and along with his wife was in turn crowned with the diadem of St. Stephen.

**John Zapolya and Solyman the Magnificent.**

John Zapolya then entered into an alliance with Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, who had subdued most of Bosnia, Croatia, Dalmatia and Slavonia, and again advanced to the plain of Mohacz in 1529, where Zapolya did homage to the Sultan for the Hungarian crown. After that degrading ceremony Zapolya accompanied the Grand Turk to Buda and aided in the massacre of its garrison.

Turkish Siege of Vienna and Retreat.

The entire Turkish army, with the coöperation of a Turkish fleet in the Danube, then laid siege to Vienna, A. D. 1529. Both Catholics and Lutherans in Germany united in this perilous emergency, and the defense of Vienna was as resolute as the attack on the city was formidable. The very number of the Turks rendered their maintenance in a hostile country extremely difficult. They raised the siege of Vienna by the middle of October, 1529, and began their retreat from the Austrian capital, thus leaving John Zapolya alone to prosecute his civil war with Ferdinand of Austria.

Large German Army.

It was the progress of the Turks that compelled the Emperor Charles V. to conclude the Peace of Nuremberg with the League of Schmalkald in 1532. Upon the conclusion of this religious peace with his Protestant German subjects, the Emperor was soon followed near Vienna by an army of eighty thousand men. Sultan Solyman the Magnificent invaded Hungary a third time, in 1532, with an army of three hundred and fifty thousand men, and with a dazzling display of Oriental magnificence. The garrisons of many of the Hungarian fortresses sent him their keys, and his march resembled a peaceful progress through his own dominions rather than a hostile invasion of an enemy's territory.

Solyman's Third Invasion of Hungary.

His Repulse at Guns.

But when the Turkish Sultan attacked the little fortress of Güns he encountered so gallant a resistance that his pride was severely wounded. His entire army was detained for more than three weeks by a garrison of only seven hundred men, who repulsed his eleven assaults upon the fortress, and who finally allowed only ten Janizaries to remain in the place an hour to erect the Ottoman standard.

His Retreat.

The Sultan was further discouraged by the operations of the Genoese admiral, Andrea Doria, in the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, and by the defeat of the Ottoman cavalry at the Sömmering Pass; and he therefore retreated hastily with the bulk of his mighty host, leaving only a force of sixty thousand men at Essek to support John Zapolya's interests.

Peace.

Peace was concluded between the Germano-Roman and Ottoman Turkish Empires the next year, A. D. 1533.

Conquest of Florence by Charles V.

After his eight years' residence in Spain, the Emperor Charles V. visited Italy in 1529 to restore the order which had been interrupted so long by his wars with Francis I. of France. He completely subverted the freedom of Florence, which Pope Clement VII. had already sold to him in the Treaty of Barcelona. When the citizens of Florence refused to recall the Medici he ordered the Prince of Orange to lay siege to the city.

Restoration of the Medici.

Florence was fortified by the great artist, Michael Angelo, and the Florentine army outside the walls offered a valiant resistance to the Emperor's troops; but as the best Florentine general was slain in battle, and as another had proven a traitor, the city was forced to surrender and to receive an imperial garrison, to pay an enormous ransom and to

accept the hereditary rule of the Medici as dukes. The Prince of Orange was slain in the same battle; and, by his sister's marriage, his titles and dominions came into the possession of the House of Nassau.

**Lombard and Imperial Coronation of Charles V.**

The Emperor Charles V. proceeded to Bologna, where he was invested by Pope Clement VII. with the iron crown of Lombardy and with the imperial diadem. The German Electors were not invited to take their hereditary parts in the ceremony. The Duke of Savoy carried the imperial crown, the Marquis of Montferrat the scepter, and the Duke of Urbino the sword. Charles V. was the last Emperor crowned in Italy.

**Marriage of Henry, Duke of Orleans, and Catharine de Medici.**

Soon afterward Pope Clement VII., offended at the Emperor Charles V., courted the alliance of the King of France; and at Marseilles he negotiated the marriage of his niece, Catharine de Medici, with Henry, Duke of Orleans, the second son of Francis I. By the subsequent death of his elder brother, Henry became the heir to the French crown; and Catharine exerted a powerful and evil influence on the destinies of France during the reigns of her three sons.

**Death of Pope Clement VII.**

Pope Clement VII. died in September, 1534. His pontificate had been signalized by losses and disasters which none of his predecessors had experienced. He had been taken prisoner, and Rome had been plundered and desecrated, once by one of the cardinals of the Church, and once by the Emperor's troops. Large parts of Germany and Switzerland had finally severed their connection with the Church of Rome, as had also England, Denmark and Sweden. His successor in the Papacy was Alexander Farnese, who, upon his election by the conclave of cardinals, assumed the title of Paul III.

**Pope Paul III.**

**Piracies of Hayraddin Barbarossa.**

At this time the coasts of the Mediterranean were infested by Mohammedan pirates, particularly by the "flying squadrons" of Hayraddin Barbarossa, who had become King of Algiers upon the death of his brother Horuc. Sultan Solyman the Magnificent appointed this daring freebooter his admiral. Such was the terror spread by his piracies that no man slept securely along the coasts of Spain, France and Italy; and multitudes of Christian captives on the African coast were reduced to the most degrading servitude, while waiting to be ransomed. Hayraddin Barbarossa had recently taken possession of the Kingdom of Tunis, after expelling its rightful sovereign, Muley Hassan; and the terror of his name was vastly heightened by this increase of his power.

**Successful Expedition of Charles V. against the Pirates.**

In 1535 the Emperor Charles V. undertook a crusade against these Moslem pirates, and this was one of the most famous and successful of his enterprises. He mustered thirty thousand men at Cagliari, in the island of Sardinia, took command of the expedition in person, sailed to the African coast and effected a landing near the site of the ancient Utica. He took by storm the fortress of Goletta, which protects Tu-

LUCAS CRANACH INTRODUCES KATHARINA VON BORA TO LUTHER

From the Painting by O. von Richter

nis; after which he routed Hayraddin Barbarossa in a pitched battle, and took Tunis itself with the aid of the Christian captives. He restored Muley Hassan to his throne on condition that he should suppress piracy, protect his Christian subjects in the exercise of their religion, and pay to the Emperor an annual tribute of twelve thousand ducats. The liberated Christian captives, whom Charles V. had caused to be clothed and equipped at his own expense, preceded him to Europe and spread his fame with ardent gratitude through their respective countries. The number of liberated Christian captives was twenty-two thousand.

**Third War of Charles V. with Francis I.**

When Charles V. returned to Europe from his African expedition he became involved in his third war with Francis I. of France, caused by the French king's claim to the Duchy of Savoy. The reigning Duke of Savoy was the uncle of Francis I., but was closely allied with the Emperor by both marriage and interest. A French force overran Savoy early in 1536. As all efforts at negotiation failed, Charles V. declared war and assembled armies in Italy and the Netherlands to invade France from those two quarters.

**Cruel Policy of Francis I.**

In pursuance of the usual cruel policy of Francis I., the Constable de Montmorenci, the French commander, laid waste the region between the Rhone and the Alps, embracing Dauphiny and Provence. Towns, villages and mills were destroyed, crops were burned and wells were poisoned. Charles V. invaded Provence by way of Italy and besieged Marseilles, but the destructive policy of the Constable de Montmorenci soon forced the Emperor to make a disgraceful retreat. The imperial army which invaded Picardy from the Netherlands met with no better success.

**Invasion of France by Charles V.**

**Alliance of Francis I. and Solyman the Magnificent.**

Elated by his rival's discomfiture, Francis I. now cherished new plans of conquest in Italy and in the Netherlands. He formed an alliance with Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, who continued his invasions of Hungary, and whose fleets swept the Mediterranean, carrying off captives from the shores of Italy. But the French king's great preparations came to naught. An armistice was signed in July, 1537; and the ten years' Truce of Nice in 1538 was followed by the Peace of Toledo in 1539, the "Perpetual Peace." Francis I. kept Savoy, Bresse and half of Piedmont; while Charles V. retained the other half of Piedmont and the Duchy of Milan. The Duke of Savoy, who had been thus robbed of his dominions, had to content himself with the little county of Nice.

**Truce of Nice and Peace of Toledo.**

**New Republic of Geneva**

Geneva, which had long been nominally subject to the Dukes of Savoy, but really ruled by its bishops, now became an independent republic, and was ruled for twenty-five years by John Calvin, through whose influence it became the stronghold of the Reformation in all French-

speaking lands, and a great European center of religious, political and scientific progress.

Alliance of Charles V. and Francis I. against Henry VIII. of England.

Under the influence of the Constable de Montmorenci, King Francis I. broke off his friendship with Henry VIII. of England and his alliance with the Turkish Sultan and with the Lutheran princes of Germany who had formed the League of Schmalkald, while he cultivated the Emperor's friendship. The French ambassador in England even proposed a scheme for the partition of that kingdom between Charles V., Francis I., and James V. of Scotland. When the English monarch was informed of this project he allied himself more closely with the League of Schmalkald by marrying Anne of Cleves, his fourth wife, the sister of the wife of the Elector John Frederick of Saxony, one of the most powerful of the Protestant princes of Germany and the great champion of the Reformation.

Moorish Piracies Renewed.

Hayraddin Barbarossa's pirate fleet soon resumed its ravages in the Levant and wrested almost all the islands of the Archipelago from the Venetians, who also lost several places on the mainland, and were forced to pay a ransom which exhausted their resources and left the Venetian Republic dependent upon the protection of France.

Charles V. and the Spanish Cortes.

Though the Emperor Charles V., as King of Spain, was master of the wealthy countries of Mexico and Peru, in the New World, he found great difficulty in meeting the expenses of his government; and the Spaniards were so reluctant to be taxed for enterprises in which they had no interest that their Cortes refused to vote supplies. Charles

Decline of the Spanish Grandees.

revenged himself by ceasing to convene the Cortes. The grandees, thus deprived of political power, consoled themselves by maintaining all the ceremony of royal courts in their palaces and country-seats and by exercising sovereignty over thousands of vassals. When they had ruined their fortunes by their extravagance, and had lost all their warlike energy by a life of indolence, they were no longer formidable to their great sovereign.

Ghent's Revolt against Charles V.

The Emperor's subjects in the Netherlands likewise protested against the oppressive taxation with which he burdened them. His native city, Ghent, rose in revolt and sent envoys to the King of France, acknowledging him as its sovereign. As Francis I. was at that time on friendly terms with Charles V. he betrayed the confidence of the insurgents of Ghent, and even invited the Emperor to pass through France on his way to punish the rebels.

Demand of Francis I. Rejected by Charles V.

Francis entertained Charles with the greatest magnificence, but as soon as the Emperor had entered the Netherlands he received a demand from the King of France for the investiture of Milan as compensation for his safe passage through France. Charles V. refused this demand except upon conditions which Francis I. would not accept, and during

the same year the Duchy of Milan was conferred on the Emperor's son Philip.

Cruel Suppression of the Revolt in Ghent by Charles V.

Charles V. entered the rebellious city of Ghent, his birthplace, on his birthday, when he was forty years of age, A. D. 1540. All the leading citizens, with bare heads and bare feet, implored pardon on their knees; but their sovereign's vengeance was not softened by submission. Twenty magistrates were beheaded. The old Abbey of St. Bavon and the Bell Roland, which, from its tower, had so often summoned a free people to arms, were destroyed; and the fines of the citizens went to pay for the erection of a fortress on its site. Charles deprived Ghent of all its political privileges. Its commercial prosperity was transferred to Antwerp. The Northern provinces of the Netherlands inherited its brave enthusiasm for freedom, and afterward wrested their independence from Charles's son and successor, as we shall presently see.

New Alliance of Francis I. and Solyman the Magnificent against Charles V.

Disappointed in his mercenary designs, Francis I. of France dismissed the Constable de Montmorenci, and renewed his alliance with the Lutheran princes of Germany and with Sultan Solyman the Magnificent. The death of King John Zapolya of Hungary was followed by a renewal of hostilities between the German and Ottoman Empires. Before the troops which the German Diet at Ratisbon had voted could take the field against the Turks, Solyman the Magnificent had entered Buda, the Hungarian capital, a third time, A. D. 1541; and that city remained under the Turkish government and the Mohammedan religion for the next one hundred and forty-six years, until its recovery by Austria in 1687.

Turkish Successes in Hungary.

Ferdinand of Austria vainly sent ambassadors to the Grand Turk, offering to hold Hungary as a tributary of the Ottoman Porte. The haughty Sultan replied by demanding an annual tribute from Ferdinand for the Archduchy of Austria. The Elector Joachim II. of Brandenburg led a German army into Hungary and laid siege to Pesth, opposite Buda, but he failed; and the Turks took one town after another in Hungary until 1547, when Sultan Solyman the Magnificent consented to a truce for five years, as he desired to turn his arms against Persia. The Ottoman Porte appointed twelve officers to govern Turkish Hungary.

Truce.

Second Expedition of Charles V. against the Moorish Pirates.

In 1541 the Emperor Charles V. led another expedition to Africa, for the purpose of thoroughly annihilating the power of the piratical Mohammedans of Algiers. But this expedition was a total failure. The fleet of Charles was destroyed by a terrible storm, and many of his followers died of a pestilential disease; and the Emperor, who had magnanimously shared all the sufferings of the humblest of his followers, was obliged to reëmbark and to return to Europe without effecting

his object, landing at the Spanish port of Cartagena in December of the same year, A. D. 1541.

**Fourth War of Charles V. with Francis I.**

Francis I. of France received the news of the Emperor's calamities in Africa with unconcealed joy, and at once proceeded to enter into an alliance with the Sultan of Turkey, the Kings of Denmark and Sweden, the Duke of Cleves and the rebellious party in Naples, against Charles V.; but Henry VIII. of England, offended by the French king's intrigues with King James V. of Scotland, rejected the advances of Francis I.

**French Invasion of the Netherlands.**

In the summer of 1542 five French armies were in the field against the Emperor, three of which were to invade the Netherlands, one to operate in Italy and one to threaten Spain. The French army under the Duke of Guise took many of the fortresses of Luxemburg; but the French king's second son, who nominally commanded this French army, disbanded his army and was to join his brother, the Dauphin, who commanded the French army which operated against Spain, and who was planning a pitched battle; and the regent of the Netherlands easily retook Luxemburg and Montmédy.

**Unsuccessful Siege of Perpignan by the French.**

The Dauphin was unsuccessful in the siege of Perpignan, through the incompetency of his engineers and the violence of the autumnal rains. Perpignan was defended by the Spanish force under the Duke of Alva, with the coöperation of the Genoese admiral, Andrea Doria. Francis I. approached within forty miles of the beleaguered town, but when he perceived the hopelessness of the enterprise he ordered the raising of the siege. His vast preparations had been dissipated in trivial undertakings, and the results of his efforts were the capture of a few small towns in Picardy and in Northern Italy.

**The Duke of Cleves Chastised by Charles V.**

Charles V. now proceeded to Germany to chastise the Duke of Cleves for his alliance with the King of France. The Emperor took Düren, in the duchy of Jüliers, or Jülich, by storm, and caused the entire population of the town to be massacred; whereupon the duchy of Jülich immediately submitted to the Emperor, and the Duke of Cleves hastened to offer his submission to his offended sovereign. The Emperor refused to look at him for a time; but at length he granted very humiliating terms of peace to the humbled duke, who was obliged to give up the provinces of Guelders and Zutphen in the Netherlands, to renounce the Protestant worship and the alliance with France, and to transfer all the ducal troops to the imperial armies.

**Turkish Ravages in Italy.**

The Turkish freebooters, the most disgraceful allies of the French, ravaged Southern Italy, burning Reggio, destroying all vineyards and olive-orchards near the coast, carrying off many of the inhabitants, and appearing at the mouth of the Tiber and threatening Rome itself. When the French ambassador interfered in the Pope's behalf, Hayrad-

din Barbarossa sailed to Marseilles, where he found a ready market for his Italian captives, May, 1543. To pacify the Turkish admiral, Francis I. ordered an attack on Nice; and that stronghold of the Duke of Savoy was bombarded by the allied French and Turkish fleets, but was saved from capture by the opportune arrival of Andrea Doria's Genoese fleet and a Spanish army, which drove away the Franco-Turkish fleet. The French king assigned the city of Toulon to the Turks for winter-quarters, and for the time that French sea-port was a Mohammedan town. The disgraceful union of the Cross and the Crescent, in the alliance of the French with the Turks, shocked all Christendom.

**French and Turkish Bombardment of Nice.**

The imminent peril with which the near presence of the Turks menaced the dominions of Charles V. induced the Emperor to renew his concessions to the Lutheran princes of Germany in the Diet of Spires in 1544; and the Lutherans in return vied with the Catholics of the German Empire in voting supplies for the war against the Emperor's foreign foes.

**Charles V. and His Lutheran Subjects.**

Hostilities were vigorously prosecuted in Piedmont during the winter of 1543–'44. The French under the Count d'Enghien defeated the imperialists at Cerisolles, in Savoy, April 14, 1544. As the King of France had secured the alliance of the Turks by sacrificing all other alliances, he was now obliged to get rid of these uncontrollable allies by the payment of almost a million crowns. The Turkish corsairs had conducted themselves at Toulon as if they had been in an enemy's country, seizing men even in the royal galleys for service in the Turkish fleet, and enslaving all whom they captured in the vicinity. Hayraddin Barbarossa had sailed for Constantinople in April, 1544, desolating the Italian coasts on his way.

**Battle of Cerisolles.**

**Insolent Conduct of the Turks.**

In the meantime Charles V. had secured the alliance of Henry VIII. of England; and by a treaty which these two monarchs signed in February, 1543, they agreed to attempt the conquest of France, and, if successful, to partition that kingdom between them. In July, 1544, Henry VIII. landed at Calais with thirty thousand men, and took Boulogne after a siege of two months; while Charles V. led a large army into Champagne and besieged St. Dizier for six weeks, during which Francis I. was enabled to raise a large army to cover the approaches to Paris. When the Emperor had advanced to Chateau Thierry, within two days' march of Paris, he opened negotiations with the French king, without consulting his ally, the King of England.

**Alliance of Charles V. and Henry VIII.**

**Their Invasion of France.**

By the Peace of Crespy between Charles V. and Francis I., September 18, 1544, each monarch relinquished the territory which he had taken since the Truce of Nice in 1538. The King of France once more renounced his claims to Naples and Flanders, and agreed to surrender Savoy on condition that his third son, the Duke of Orleans, should be

**Peace of Crespy.**

invested with the Duchy of Milan, and should receive in marriage a daughter of the Emperor or of the Emperor's brother, the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria. The French king also agreed to coöperate with the Emperor in suppressing the Reformation and in defending Christendom against the Turks.

Savoy and Milan.

The premature death of the Duke of Orleans prevented the execution of the articles of the Treaty of Crespy concerning the Duchies of Savoy and Milan. Henry VIII. refused to take part in the Treaty of Crespy, and a desultory war went on between him and Francis I. until June, 1546, when peace was signed between them.

Final Peace.

Religious Persecution in the Netherlands by Charles V.

Both Charles V. and Francis I. at once proceeded to execute the article of the Peace of Crespy relating to the extirpation of heresy in their respective dominions. Charles ordered certain doctors of the University of Louvain to draw up a Confession of Faith, which he required all his subjects in the Netherlands to accept under penalty of death. To show that he was in earnest, he caused Peter du Breuil, a Calvinistic preacher, to be burned to death in the market-place of Tournay, February, 1545.

Persecution of the Vaudois by Francis I.

The King of France signalized his zeal for the Catholic faith by a persecution of the heretical Vaudois, or Waldenses, in the high Alpine valleys between France and Piedmont—a persecution so cruel that it would have disgraced the worst of the pagan Roman Emperors. The simple Vaudois had retained their simple form of Christian faith and worship from the earliest times, unmodified by the elaborate rites which had found their way into the wealthier and more elegant churches. They had recently hailed the doctrines of the Reformation as in accordance with their own faith—a circumstance which drew the attention of Europe to these hitherto-unnoticed and obscure heretics.

Cruel Edict of the Parliament of Paris.

On New Year's Day, 1545, Francis I. addressed a letter to the Parliament of Provence, demanding the execution of the decree which it had passed in 1540 for the suppression of heresy, but which had been suspended hitherto by the intercession of the German Protestants. This atrocious edict required all fathers of families who persisted in heresy to be burned, their wives and children to be reduced to serfdom, their property to be confiscated and their dwellings to be destroyed.

Devastation and Massacre in the Vaudois Country.

A Vaudois colony settled in the rugged mountain region north of the Durance, which their patient industry had converted into a fruitful garden, was the special object of the French king's persecution. The Baron d'Oppède, whose forces had been trained by the plundering and devastating campaigns of the French in Italy, was a fit instrument for this work of desolation. His bands soon overran the Vaudois country, laid waste the vineyards, orchards and grain-fields, and massacred the innocent inhabitants. The little town of Cabrières was induced to sur-

render by a promise that no one should be put to death—a promise that was violated as soon as the population were in the power of their cruel foes, who slaughtered their innocent victims without the least show of mercy. Those who had sought refuge in the mountains were hunted like wild beasts; and some of the strongest were chained to the galleys, while the others were butchered.

Religious Persecution Throughout France.

This cruel persecution of the simple Vaudois horrified most of Europe; but the French clergy, who had demanded it of their king, boldly avowed and sanctioned the action, ignoring the brutality of its execution. The fires of persecution were kindled throughout France, and Protestants were publicly burned at Paris, Meaux, Sens and Issoire. Briçonnet, the good Bishop of Meaux, had introduced the Reformed doctrines into that city twenty years before; and it became one of the centers of the Reformation in France. One of its martyrs was Stephen Dolet, a celebrated French scholar and author, who was highly esteemed by the literary men of that period.

Character and Abilities of Francis I.

Notwithstanding his many faults and vices, Francis I. was one of the greatest of the Kings of France. His great weakness was his subserviency to his wicked mother and mistresses, who ruled him thoroughly, and whose folly was accountable for most of the reverses which had befallen him. But his great sagacity clearly perceived the danger with which France and all Europe were menaced by the towering ambition of the illustrious royal Austrian House of Hapsburg. He struggled single-handed for thirty years against the most powerful monarch that had reigned in Christendom since the time of Charlemagne, and left France to his successor wholly unimpaired and even increased in territorial extent.

His Patronage of Learning and Arts.

Francis I. was called the *Restorer of Letters and the Arts*, because of the wise and liberal encouragement and patronage which he gave to the revival of learning and the arts which distinguished his era; and many of the noblest monuments of France had their origin during his reign.

His Death.

He died March 31, 1547, of a painful malady from which he had long suffered, and which had been caused by his immoral life; and was succeeded by his son Henry II. Henry VIII. of England died the same year.

Six Great Sovereigns.

Thus two of the six great contemporary European sovereigns of the first half of the sixteenth century passed from the world's stage. The four remaining were the Emperor Charles V., Sultan Solyman the Magnificent of Turkey, the Czar Ivan the Terrible of Russia and King Gustavus Vasa of Sweden. These six contemporary monarchs of Europe in that eventful epoch stamped their names indelibly upon the history of that memorable period, so prolific in results for the advance of civilization and humanity.

## SECTION III.—EMPEROR CHARLES V. AND THE GERMAN REFORMATION (A. D. 1517-1531).

**The Reformation.**

The great religious Reformation, which caused the separation of most of the Teutonic nations from the Roman Church, was one of the most important events connected with the opening of the modern era.

**Corruption of the Church.**

For several centuries the Chair of St. Peter had been occupied by Popes whose vices and crimes were a reproach to Christendom; and men doubted whether such creatures were God's agents upon earth. The pious and eloquent St. Bernard—although a staunch adherent of the Church—had as early as the twelfth century condemned the vices of the Popes and clergy. Monks and nuns disgraced themselves by their shameful vices. All attempts at reformation were ignored or suppressed by the Popes, backed by the power of the Church. We have noticed the extinction of the unfortunate creed of the Albigenses in blood; the bold denial of the papal positions by Wycliffe and Huss, the martyrdom of Huss, and the suppression of their attempts at reformation; and the bold denunciation of the wickedness of Popes and clergy by the pious Florentine, Savonarola, and his consequent martrydom.

**Unworthy Popes.**

After the Councils of Constance and Basle, the Church continued to grow more and more corrupt. Seventy great crimes had been proven against Pope John XXIII. Alexander VI. (1492-1503), the worst of the Popes, caused political opponents and cardinals to be poisoned to obtain their wealth; and, as we have seen, his death was caused by accidentally drinking poisoned wine which he had intended for another. Julius II. (1503-1513), the warlike Pope, swore at God for giving the French the victory; and his military ambition and desire to extend his dominions ill accorded with his spiritual office. Pope Leo X. (1513-1521)—John de Medici, the accomplished but dissolute son of Lorenzo the Magnificent, the illustrious ruler of Florence—disgraced his station by his vices and his irreligion; although he was a great patron of literature and the arts.

**Rev. Dr. Martin Luther.**

As we shall presently see, the great Reformation was begun in Germany in 1517 by Dr. Martin Luther's bold opposition to certain papal assumptions. Luther was the son of a miner, and was born at Eisleben, in Saxony, November 10, 1483. His father had destined him to study. Like other poor scholars, he earned his daily bread by singing from door to door, and in this way he cultivated that love and talent for music which afterward enabled him to move the German heart by his hymns.

**Luther as a Monk at Erfurt.**

Luther had studied jurisprudence for four years at the University of Erfurt, when anxiety for the salvation of his soul, and the sudden

death of a friend, caused him to enter an Augustinian monastery in 1505; and he was finally admitted as a monk, but he obtained no alleviation of his melancholy. His experience in the monastery at Erfurt caused him to regard the rites of the Church as insufficient to give peace to his soul, and only when he devoted himself diligently to the study of a Latin Bible which he found chained in the library did he obtain any comfort to his conscience.

**Luther at Wittenberg.**

In 1508 Luther was appointed Professor of Theology in the new University of Wittenberg, founded by Frederick the Wise, Elector of Saxony. His appointment was made on the recommendation of Staupitz, the chief of the Augustinian order. His clear and vigorous style caused multitudes of students to throng to his lectures. The Elector Frederick the Wise was a devout member of the Church, but also a firm friend and protector of Luther, whom he highly appreciated as the main ornament of his favorite university; and the esteem in which the Saxon Elector was held throughout Germany secured a respectful hearing for Luther's doctrines.

**Luther's Visit to Rome.**

The insight which Luther had gained during his monastic life, and which made him doubt the efficacy of some of the doctrines and practices of the Church, was strengthened by a journey to Rome in 1510 on business connected with his Augustinian order, when his suspicions were fully confirmed. The warlike pomp and ambition of Pope Julius II., the avowed skepticism of the clergy, and their sacrilegious contempt for the mysteries of the faith, shocked his religious nature. While ascending the Holy Staircase he was reminded of the words "The just shall live by faith"; and these became the watchword of the Reformation. He said in after years: "I would not for a hundred thousand florins have missed seeing Rome. I should always have felt an uneasy doubt whether I was not, after all, doing injustice to the Pope. As it is, I am quite satisfied on the point."

**Doctrine of Indulgences.**

The sale of *indulgences* brought matters to a crisis, and was the immediate cause of Luther's separation from the Church of Rome. In the Roman Catholic Church an *indulgence* means a remission of the temporal punishment inflicted upon a repentant sinner and still due after the sin and its eternal punishment have been remitted. As this doctrine of indulgences has been the subject of much controversy between Roman Catholic and Protestant theologians, and as this doctrine was the chief among the proximate causes of the Reformation, it is entitled to very careful consideration, since the disputes between Roman Catholics and Protestants as to nature and character of these indulgences are the source of all the controversy concerning the origin and causes of the Reformation. We must here confine ourselves to a brief authentic explanation of the doctrine of indulgences as held by the Roman Catholic Church,

along with a short history of the practice of this doctrine in the various ages of the Church.

History of the Practice of Granting Indulgences.

By the discipline of the first few centuries of the Christian Church a severe course of penitential observance was exacted of all who committed any serious crime, particularly apostasy, murder and adultery, such sinners being excluded from Church communion for various periods, in some cases even until the hour of death. According to the Roman Catholic view, these penitential observances were designed as the penitent's expiation for the temporal punishment which he had still to undergo after God had forgiven the sin and remitted its eternal punishment; but Protestants consider these penitential observances as purely disciplinary. Some of the most acrimonious of the early controversies in the Church—the Montanist and the Novatian—arose concerning the Church's power to relax these penitential observances and to admit grievous sinners to communion. The Roman Catholics regard these ancient relaxations as examples of the modern indulgences, and for a type of these examples they refer to First Corinthians, first chapter and fifth verse, and Second Corinthians, second chapter and tenth verse. The Roman Catholic theologians maintain that the practice of granting such relaxations on the recommendation of martyrs or confessors is an illustration of that principle of vicarious atonement according to which the Church is believed to supply from the inexhaustible treasure of the merits of Christ and of the "supererogatory" works of the saints what may be lacking to the completeness of the atonement of the less perfect but yet truly penitent sinner to whom the Church grants the indulgence. This practice grew up in the third and fourth centuries of the Christian era, and was carried to great extremes even at that early period. The Council of Ancyra in A. D. 308, and the Council of Nice in A. D. 325, both decreed that this practice of relaxation was to be used according to the judgment of the bishops as to the disposition of the penitent, whatever the real signification of the practice may have been. But in all cases the person granting the relaxation was to impose certain good works on the penitent as a partial substitute for the penalty which had been relaxed. These good works were at first purely personal, but among them came to be included by degrees money payments for certain religious or charitable objects, such as the erection of a church or the founding of a monastery or a hospital. The name indulgence seems to have been of later origin, the first recorded instance of its use being by Pope Alexander II. in the eleventh century, but the institution itself is seen in complete development during the Crusades, as the Council of Clermont accepted service in the First Crusade, or the contribution of service therein, "as an

equivalent substitute for all penance, provided it were for devotion alone, and not from motives of greed or of glory," such an indulgence being called "plenary," as being distinguished from "partial" indulgence, where only a portion of the penitential works was relaxed. In order to check the excessive multiplication of these plenary indulgences and to stop other abuses, Pope Innocent III. declared that the power of granting such indulgences must be reserved to the Pope alone, bishops being authorized only to grant the partial or limited indulgences, described above. The Fourth Lateran Council condemned the "indiscreet and superfluous" granting of indulgences. One of the most remarkable of the abuses which grew up in the Church during the Great Schism was the lavish dispensation of indulgences, the rival Popes appearing to be trying to outdo each other in such prodigality. But the extreme to which the dispensing of indulgences was reached was early in the sixteenth century, as we shall now see, along with the portentous results emanating therefrom.

**Sale of Indulgences.**

Thus it will be seen that the traffic in indulgences had risen from apparently innocent beginnings, by successive degrees, until it became the chief source of income to the papal treasury. At first, the remission of temporal penalties for sin was promised to all who took part in the Crusades; then to those who founded churches or monasteries, or to those who paid a certain sum of money as a commutation for personal service; and afterwards to those who performed pilgrimages, especially by visiting Rome during the years of Jubilee, wholly as a religious duty.

**Extension of Indulgences.**

Pope Alexander VI. first assumed the right to remit the penalties of sin in a future life, in consideration of money paid or penances performed in this life. These indulgences soon became very popular; and people sought by their means to deliver the souls of their departed friends from the pains of purgatory, and to secure the same immunities for themselves hereafter.

**Indulgences in Germany.**

Germany was the great market for the sale of indulgences, either from the credulity or piety of its people; and the large sums annually remitted to Rome on this account were there styled "the sins of the Germans." The management of this revenue was so open that the Popes farmed it out to the great Augsburg bankers, the Fuggers, and sometimes granted parts of it to temporal princes for limited times. Thus Frederick the Wise had himself obtained the sale of indulgences in Saxony for the purpose of building a bridge over the Elbe. In 1508 the King of Hungary received two-thirds of the proceeds in his kingdom for the prosecution of his wars against the Turks. The Emperor at one time permitted the sale only on condition of the payment of one-third into his treasury.

Pope Leo X. and Indulgences.

In order to defray the expenses of building the great Cathedral of St. Peter's at Rome, which had been commenced by his famous predecessor Julius II., Pope Leo X. pushed the sale of indulgences with increased energy. The Elector Albert, Archbishop of Mayence and Primate of Germany—a young and immoral churchman—had bought his ecclesiastical dignity at an enormous price; and the Pope aided him to pay for it by a special dispensation of indulgences.

Tetzel's Sale of Indulgences.

The archbishop employed John Tetzel, a Dominican monk of infamous and immoral character, as his agent for the sale of these indulgences throughout Germany. Tetzel traveled over the country selling for a fixed price remission for past and future sins. Cried he: "Pour in your money, and whatever crimes you have committed, or may commit, are forgiven! Pour in your coin, and the souls of your friends and relations will fly out of purgatory the moment they hear the clink of your money at the bottom of the box!" The sentiment here conveyed was expressed in the following lines in German:

*"So wie das geld im kasten klingt,*
*Die seele aus dem fegfeuer springt."*

"As in the box the money rings,
The soul from purgatory springs."

Controversy as to the Above.

The above account of Tetzel's words on this occasion, as derived from Protestant sources, is the subject of bitter controversy, Roman Catholic authorities maintaining that facts are here misrepresented, and that Tetzel did not use the language imputed to him in this instance.

Tetzel's Form of Absolution.

The following was Tetzel's form of absolution: "May our Lord Jesus Christ have mercy upon thee, and absolve thee by all the merits of his most holy passion; and I, by his authority, that of his blessed apostles, Peter and Paul, and of the most holy Pope, granted and committed to me in these parts, do absolve thee first from all ecclesiastical censures, in whatever manner they have been incurred, and then from all thy sins, trangressions and excesses, how enormous soever they may be, even from such as are reserved for the cognizance of the Holy See; and as far as the keys of the Holy Church extend I remit to you all punishment which you deserve in purgatory on their account; and I restore you to the holy sacraments of the Church, to the unity of the faithful, and to that innocence and purity which you possessed at baptism; so that when you die the gates of punishment shall be shut, and the gates of the paradise of delight shall be opened; and if you shall not die at present this grace shall remain in full force when you are at the point of death. In the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost."

As Cardinal Wiseman pointed out in his *Lectures* (No. 12), "flagrant and too frequent abuses, doubtless, occurred through the avarice and rapacity, and impiety of men; especially when indulgence was granted to the contributors towards charitable or religious foundations, in the erection of which private motives too often mingle. But . . . the Church felt and ever tried to remedy the evil."

**Roman Catholic View of Indulgences.**

The principal condition of the plenary indulgence granted by Pope Leo X. was the contribution to the erection of St. Peter's Cathedral at Rome. Roman Catholic historians contend that in itself such a condition was perfectly justifiable, and that if duly explained to the people it might be lawfully and even meritoriously complied with; but they admit that many of the preachers of the indulgence went to indefensible extremes in extolling its natural effects, and that it cannot be denied that very serious abuses both of doctrine and of practice were committed in Germany and Switzerland, though in themselves indulgences were all right. This explanation shows that the Roman Catholics do not regard an indulgence as a remission of sin, much less a permission to commit sin or a promise of pardon of future sin; but they contend also that the imputation of introducing laxity of principle and easy self-indulgence is wholly unwarranted, as the benefit of an indulgence can be enjoyed only by a sinner who has repented of sin and resolved to lead a new life; and they likewise maintain that sorrow for sin and sincere purpose of repentance, as the one indispensable preliminary, in itself involves the very brightest effort of Christian virtue, although the good works required as the condition of obtaining the indulgence may seem easy and trivial for the most part.

**Protestant View.**

On the subject of indulgences Protestants usually quote the words of the Popes in granting them, instead of the views expressed by Roman Catholics in defending them. One of the most common things is for the Popes, in their bulls of Jubilee, to grant the most plenary and complete indulgence, pardon and remission of all sins, on certain specified conditions. And Protestants argue that the people necessarily place such an undue importance on these indulgences as to have a very unfavorable effect on penitence, virtue, faith and piety; as they are limited to a certain period, as the year of Jubilee, and to certain conditions, as saying certain prayers, visiting certain churches, wearing or kissing a scapular, or the like; even although the indulgences are granted only to "the faithful who are truly penitent and have confessed." Protestants also maintain that the whole doctrine of indulgences is founded not only on an unwarranted assumption of power bestowed on the Church, but also on a doctrine of human works and merits inconsistent with what the Scriptures teach concerning the office of Christ as a Saviour.

**Luther's Ninety-five Theses.**

Tetzel's disgraceful traffic shocked many good men, and his overbearing conduct aroused great indignation in Germany. Animated by his new and ardent belief in justification by faith alone, Dr. Martin Luther preached vigorously and energetically against the traffic in indulgences, and refused absolution to any of his hearers who should buy the indulgences from Tetzel. On October 31, 1517, Luther nailed to his church-door his *ninety-five theses*, boldly denying the Pope's right to sell indulgences, and declaring that remission of sins is from God alone. This was the beginning of the great *Reformation*, which rapidly spread and which ended in the withdrawal of the Teutonic nations from the Church of Rome.

**Luther's Disputation with John von Eck.**

Tetzel and others of the clergy published replies to Luther's theses, and the matter was finally reported at Rome. Pope Leo X. paid little attention to this at first, saying: "It is a quarrel of the monks." He also said that Luther wrote well, and was evidently a man of genius. Dr. John von Eck, or Eckius, Chancellor of the University of Ingolstadt, a learned man and skillful in argument, was one of the first to oppose Luther in Leipsic. He composed a book in which he undertook to show that Luther's heresy was identical with that of Huss, but Luther replied with such unorthodox views that Eck immediately called upon the Pope to interfere and silence the audacious Reformer of Wittenberg. In his disputation with Eck, Luther maintained that the Bishop of Rome was made Head of the Church by human and not by divine ordination, and expressed doubt of the infallibility of Councils and of the Pope himself. It was these bold avowals that caused Eck to compose his learned work called *The Obelisks*. Luther had urged that the Bishop of Rome became Head of the Church by a human arrangement, made some centuries after the rise of Christianity. Eck endeavored to prove that such was not the case, and proceeded to Rome with his book.

**Luther's Partisans.**

Luther's ninety-five theses had created great excitement in Germany, and a party had rapidly been formed about him which demanded a thorough reform in the doctrines and discipline of the Church. This party was very strong in the German cities. Luther advanced steadily in his opinions and promulgated his views more boldly, thus driving forward the movement which he had begun with every advance of his own.

**Pope Leo X., Luther and the Elector of Saxony.**

Pope Leo X. finally aroused himself to the significance of the movement in Germany, and summoned Luther to appear at Rome; but the Elector of Saxony was well aware of what would be the Reformer's fate if he obeyed the Pope's summons, and therefore interposed as Luther's sovereign by forbidding him to go to Rome and demanding that he should be tried for his doctrines in Germany.

Luther's Disputation with Cardinal Cajetan.

In 1518 the Pope sent Cardinal Cajetan, or Cajetanus, into Germany as the papal legate, to examine Luther. Luther was summoned before Cajetan in the imperial Diet at Augsburg. Provided with a safe-conduct, Luther obeyed the summons, and declared his willingness to recant if it could be shown to him that his doctrines were contrary to the Holy Scriptures; but the cardinal refused to allow any discussion. Luther then offered to submit his doctrines to the four universities of Basle, Freiburg, Louvain and Paris; but Cajetan rejected the proposition with scorn. When Luther saw that he would not receive justice from the papal legate he drew up an appeal to the Pope, and affixed it to the door of Augsburg Cathedral, after which he fled from Augsburg by night and returned to Saxony. The Elector refused to banish him at the legate's demand.

Luther's Popularity.

The great majority of the German people were now on Luther's side, and his party was growing stronger every day. The most enlightened men of the time—poets, painters and scholars—united in doing honor to the great Reformer's piety and moral courage.

The Emperor Charles V. and Luther.

The death of the Emperor Maximilian I., in 1519, and the contest for the German imperial crown which followed, produced a lull in the conflict of religious opinions for several years. The imperial crown was offered to the Elector of Saxony, but he refused it and recommended the young King Charles I. of Spain, who was accordingly chosen and became the Emperor Charles V., as already noticed. Charles V. was very willing to help the Pope; but, as Luther was the friend of the Elector of Saxony, to whom the new Emperor was indebted for his German crown, Charles V. could not immediately offend the Elector by proceeding against the great Reformer.

Pope Leo X. and Luther.

In 1520 Pope Leo X. condemned Luther's writings to be burned, and threatened the great Reformer with excommunication unless he recanted within sixty days; and on December 11th of the same year (1520) Luther publicly burned the papal bull of condemnation and the volumes of the canon-law of the Roman Church in the public square of Wittenberg. The Pope punished Luther and his adherents by solemnly excommunicating them from the Church, but Luther replied by excommunicating the Pope. In 1521 Luther appeared before the Diet of Worms, at the command of the Emperor Charles V., who provided the Reformer with a safe-conduct. Luther's friends, fearing for his safety, had advised him not to go to Worms; but the daring Reformer replied: "I will go to Worms if there be as many devils there as tiles on the roofs of the houses."

Luther at the Diet of Worms.

His Triumphal Reception.

Luther's journey to Worms resembled a triumphal procession, as the people of many towns came a distance of many miles to meet him and to escort him. When he arrived at Worms he was escorted to his

lodgings by a multitude of nobles and citizens. The next day he appeared before the assembled Diet. As he entered the great hall where the Diet was in session, George Frundsberg, the famous general, who afterward embraced his opinions, tapped him on the shoulder and said to him earnestly: "Little monk, little monk, thou art doing a more daring thing than I or any other general ever ventured on. But if thou art confident in thy cause, go on, in God's name, and be of good cheer, for He will not forsake thee."

**His Refusal to Recant.**

Luther made an eloquent defense before the Diet, and when ordered to recant he refused unless convinced from Scripture that he was wrong, and concluded thus: "Here I stand; I cannot do otherwise; God help me—Amen!" Some of the Pope's adherents advised the Emperor to violate his solemn promise and mete out to Luther the fate of Huss; but Charles, true to his word, allowed Luther to depart, saying: "No, I will not blush like Sigismund at Constance!" The Emperor permitted Luther to depart from Worms, but warned him that thenceforth he must expect the treatment due a heretic. Charles V. then issued an edict condemning Luther as a heretic and punishing all who should shelter the Reformer, or print, sell, buy or read his books, by putting them under the ban of the Empire.

**Condemnation of Luther.**

**Luther's Confinement at the Wartburg.**

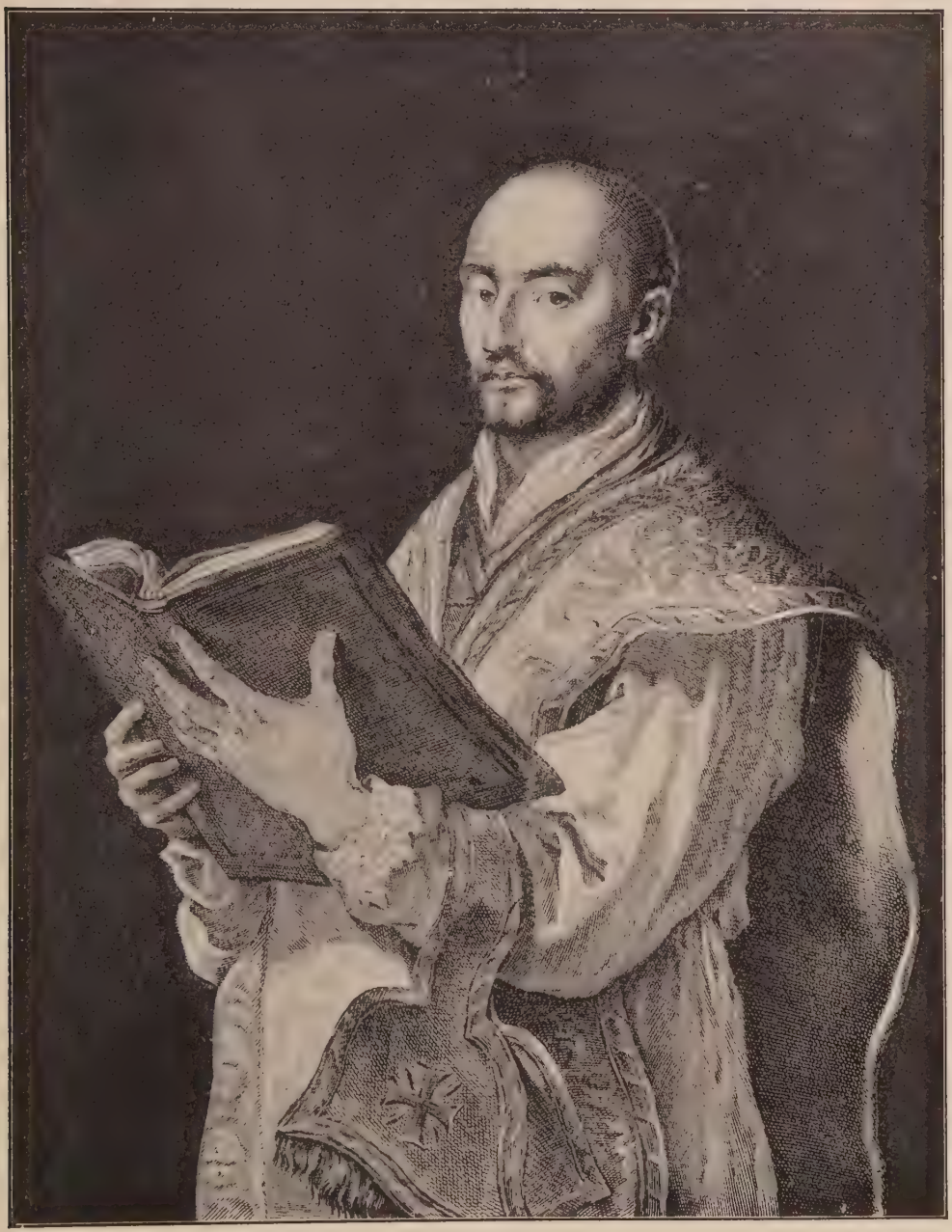
Soon after Luther had departed from Worms he was seized by a company of masked horsemen sent by the Elector of Saxony to secure him from his enemies. Luther was at once stripped of his monkish dress, attired in military costume, with a false beard, mounted on a spare horse, and hurried away to the manorial castle of Wartburg, in Thuringia, which belonged to the Elector Frederick the Wise. The Reformer lived in that castle almost a year under the name of "Ritter George." It was generally believed that he had been murdered, and his friends were greatly alarmed for his safety, but soon received tidings setting at rest all fears.

**Luther's Work at the Wartburg.**

During this period of seclusion in the Wartburg castle Luther began what proved to be the most important of all his works—the translation of the Scriptures into the German language. He continued striking at the dogmas of the Roman Catholic Church, and his disciples and the press of Germany circulated his writings broadcast over the Empire. The art of printing aided vastly in spreading the tenets of the great Reformer, so that all classes were made acquainted with his doctrines.

**Luther and the Devil.**

Luther believed strongly in the Devil. During his confinement in Wartburg castle he once threw his inkstand at the Devil's head, and the spot of ink is still shown on the wall. Said Luther: "Once, in our monastery at Wittenberg, I distinctly heard the Devil making a noise. As I sat down and began to study, the Devil came and made a noise behind my stove as though he would drag it away. At last,



IGNATIUS LOYOLA

as he would not stop, I put my books by and went to bed. Another night I heard him overhead, but perceiving it was the Devil I paid no attention, and went to sleep again. This morning, when I awoke, the Devil said to me, 'Thou art a sinner.' I answered, 'Tell me something new, Devil, I knew that before.' He continued, 'What have you done with the monasteries?' I replied, 'What's that to thee? thy accursed worship goes on as ever.' The Devil sometimes casts me into such despair that I hardly know whether there is a God. He sets the law, sin and death before my eyes, compels me to ponder on this Trinity, and so torments me. He has sworn my death, but he will crack a hollow nut. When the Devil comes to me at night I give him these and the like answers, and say, 'Devil, I must now sleep, for this is God's command, to labor by day and sleep by night.' Then, if he charge me with being a sinner, I say, to spite him, 'Holy Satan! pray for me,' or 'Physician, heal thyself!' The Devil hates to be laughed at. He is of a melancholy disposition, and cheeerful music soon puts him to flight."

**Dr. Carlstadt and the Anabaptists.**

During Luther's confinement in the Wartburg castle one of his earliest disciples, Dr. Carlstadt, began a series of hasty innovations at Wittenberg, abolishing the mass, extending the cup to the laity, and exercising his zeal against images and ceremonies with an eagerness equal to that of the Iconoclasts of the Byzantine Empire almost a thousand years before. Dr. Carlstadt was soon joined by the so-called Zurickhauer prophets, who denounced the baptism of infants, insisted upon the rebaptism of adults and were thus called *Anabaptists*, and believed in direct inspiration from God. These radical Reformers destroyed the robes used in celebrating mass, and also destroyed images in some churches; and monks fled in great alarm from their cloisters.

**Luther's Conservatism.**

These hasty proceedings disturbed Luther's tranquillity of mind so that he could no longer remain at the castle of Wartburg. He therefore hastened to Wittenberg, preached against Dr. Carlstadt's innovations, pronouncing them over-hasty and uncharitable, and sought to bring about a more peaceful development of his views.

**Philip Melanchthon.**

Wittenberg now became the seat of German culture. In its famous university Philip Melanchthon of Bretten had already occupied the chair of Professor of Greek at the age of twenty-two, and he was Luther's co-worker in the Reformation. This Reformer was of a pensive disposition, prone to mystical effusions of tender piety, while his mind was richly stored with classic lore. He had been captivated by Luther's eloquence; and, as he was of a timid disposition, he became one of the great Reformer's most zealous disciples and devoted friends. By his learned Latin writings Melanchthon endeavored to secure the doctrines of the new Church on a scientific basis.

Luther's Hymn and German Bible.

Luther won the hearts of the people by his German writings and hymns; one of which—*Eine feste Burg ist unser Gott*, "A mighty fortress is our God"—became the battle hymn of the Reformation. His translation of the Bible into German begun at the Wartburg castle was completed at Wittenberg, and was first published in 1534. It was generally considered a masterpiece of the German language and an exponent of the German spirit.

Spread of Lutheranism.

The Lutheran doctrines soon spread from Saxony into other German states. The Landgrave Philip of Hesse, the founder of the University of Marburg, zealously supported the Reformation; while the educated burghers of the German imperial cities likewise distinguished themselves by their zeal in the same cause. For a long time the German nobility had coveted the Church property, and now they had a favorable opportunity to seize control over it. It appeared for the time as if all Germany was being carried away by the Lutheran movement, and a national Church was rising.

Catholic Alarm.

The Catholic princes of Germany were naturally alarmed, and felt that all their power was needed to resist the new Church movement. The Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, the brother of the Emperor Charles V., concluded a treaty of alliance at Ratisbon, or Regensburg, with Duke Louis of Bavaria, Duke William and several bishops and archbishops of Southern Germany, for the preservation of the Roman Catholic Church.

Diet of Nuremberg.

At the Diet of the German Empire held at Nuremberg in 1524 most of the German princes favored the Reformation. The war which the Emperor Charles V., as King of Spain, was waging against King Francis I. of France in Italy, by diverting the Emperor's attention from Germany, gave the Lutherans additional power; and while the

Leagues of Ratisbon and Torgau.

Catholic princes of Germany were forming the League of Ratisbon the Lutherans held a meeting at Torgau in 1526, at which the Landgrave Philip of Hesse and the Elector John of Saxony entered into an alliance with several German cities to uphold the Reformation.

Lawless Knights.

The tranquillity of Germany was now disturbed by several causes. Notwithstanding the abolition of the right of private warfare, the country was still scoured by lawless knights and their men-at-arms, who robbed merchants and wealthy travelers, and even cut off the

Franz von Sickingen.

right hands of their captives. Franz von Sickingen, the greatest of the Rhenish knights, headed a league organized in hostility to the German princes. The knights professed an inveterate animosity toward the priests, and claimed Luther's support; but the great Reformer dreaded the propagation of his doctrines by the sword, and exhorted Franz von Sickingen and his followers to observe the peace of the Empire.

His Overthrow and Death.

In spite of Luther's efforts, Franz von Sickingen and his supporters declared war against the Archbishop of Trèves, who was aided by the Landgrave Philip of Hesse and Frederick the Elector-Palatine. Franz von Sickingen was deprived of many of his castles, after which he was besieged in Landstuhl, the massive walls of which were reduced to ruins by artillery; and he was found mortally wounded in one of the inner apartments. The victorious Archbishop of Trèves, upon entering the vaulted chamber, exclaimed: "What have I done, that you should attack me and my poor people?" The Landgrave Philip of Hesse also asked: "Or I, that you should overrun my lands in my minority?" Franz von Sickingen replied: "I must answer to a greater Lord." When asked to confess his sins he answered: "I have already in my heart confessed to God." The princes knelt in prayer, while the chaplain administered the religious rites, and Franz von Sickingen's soul passed away. Twenty-seven castles belonging to him and his supporters, and most of the similar strongholds in Franconia, were dismantled or destroyed.

Peasant Revolt in Germany.

Thomas Munzer.

During the next three years (A. D. 1523–1525) Germany was distracted by a terrible revolt of the peasantry of Suabia, Franconia, Alsace, Lorraine and the Palatinate. The fanatical discourses of the fickle Anabaptist, Thomas Münzer, attracted crowds of idle and unprincipled people around him by proclaiming the principles of Communism and instigating these people to plunder churches, convents and castles. This leader talked of abolishing all temporal and spiritual power, and of establishing a heavenly kingdom in which all men should be equal, and in which every distinction between rich and poor, noble and peasant, should disappear.

Hans Muller and His Peasant Band.

Thomas Münzer's harangues confused the excited peasants, and very soon the populace from the Boden Lake to Dreisam followed the leadership of Hans Müller of Bulgenbach, who had formerly been a soldier. Attired in a red mantle and cap, Hans Müller marched from village to village, at the head of his followers. The chief banner was borne behind him on a carriage decorated with boughs and ribbons. The revolted peasants carried with them twleve articles, the importance of which they were ready to maintain with their swords. By these articles they demanded the liberty of hunting, fishing, cutting wood, etc.; the abolition of serfdom, tithes and soccage duties; the right of choosing their own preachers, and the free preaching of the Gospel.

The peasants of the Odenwald soon afterward rose in revolt, as did those on the Neckar and in Franconia, under the leadership of the audacious publican, George Metzler. These revolted peasants forced the Counts of Hohenlohe, Lowenstein, Wertheim and Gemmingen, the Superiors of the German Order in Mergentheim, and others, to accept

Peasant Bands under George Metzler, Florian Geier and Gotz von Berlichingen.

the twelve articles and to concede to their subjects the privileges demanded. Any one venturing to resist them was put to death, as in the case of Count Helfenstein von Weinsberg. They marched through the land burning and devastating. They destroyed the castles and monasteries, and took a bloody revenge on their foes and oppressors. Under the leadership of gallant knights, like Florian Geier and Götz von Berlichingen of the Iron Hand, the revolted peasants marched into Wurzburg, while other bands of insurgents ravaged the lands of Baden.

Spread of the Peasant Revolt.

The peasant revolt soon spread over all of Suabia, Franconia, Alsace, Lorraine and the Palatinate. The spiritual and temporal princes of Germany became alarmed, and granted some of the exasperated peasants' demands. In Thuringia and the Hartz mountains the insurrection assumed more of a religious character. In Mühlhausen, Thomas Münzer had acquired great respect and the reputation of a prophet. He rejected Luther's moderate views, girded himself with the sword of Gideon, and desired to found a divine kingdom, with freedom and equality for all. The people were so excited by his preaching that they destroyed castles, convents and churches with the most barbarous fury.

Thomas Munzer's Excesses.

Luther's Stand against the Revolted Peasants.

In the beginning of the present revolt Luther attempted to restore peace. He represented to the German princes and nobles that they had been guilty of acts of violence, and he also exhorted the peasants to refrain from rebellion. But when the danger increased, when temporal and spiritual affairs were mingled together, he published a forcible tract "against the plundering and bloodthirsty peasants," calling upon the magistrates to attack them with the sword and to show them no mercy whatever.

Thomas Munzer's Defeat and Execution.

In response to Luther's call, the German nobles and knights took the field against the rebel peasants. The Elector John of Saxony, the Landgrave Philip of Hesse and others marched into Thuringia, and gained an easy victory by means of their artillery over the half-starved peasants under Thomas Münzer, who was executed at Mülhausen after being subjected to the most horrible tortures.

Pacification of Suabia and Franconia.

The insurrection was suppressed in Suabia by Truchsess of Waldburg, the Captain of the Suabian League, who then marched with the Elector-Palatine and the warlike Archbishop of Trèves against the insurgent bands in Franconia, which were besieging the strong castle of Wurzburg, where the disorderly and disorganized populace were again subdued by superior military skill and better arms. After a short resistance the rebels fled with precipitation, during which most of them were killed. Those who were taken prisoners were put to death, and the citizens of the Franconian towns who had sided with the insur-

gent peasantry were severely punished, many being beheaded by the ax of the executioner at Wurzburg.

Final Suppression of the Peasant Revolt.

The same scenes were enacted in Alsace, in the Palatinate and in Suabia, where the insurrection had continued longest. Order was finally restored by Truchsess of Waldburg and by the famous condottiere, George Frundsberg, who resorted to severe measures for the accomplishment of this result. The revolt was quelled only when one hundred thousand lives had been lost and many fertile fields reduced to desolation. In most places the peasants were again oppressed with all their former burdens, and in many localities the cry was loudly echoed: "If they have formerly been chastised with rods they shall now be scourged with scorpions."

Luther's Marriage.

The Reformation acquired additional strength in the midst of tumults and bloodshed, and Luther's energy increased with opposition. In 1524 he left the Augustinian cloisters, and in 1525 he married Catharine of Bora, who had formerly been a nun. He thereafter led a more domestic life, in the midst of a circle of princes, literary men and familiar friends. Neither poverty nor idleness affected his energy or zeal. He now devoted himself to framing a constitution for his Church and ordaining ministers for it. Having assailed the fundamental laws of the Roman Church, he was now obliged to substitute new laws in place of the old.

Innovations of John of Saxony and Philip of Hesse.

In a Diet of the German Empire assembled at Spires in 1526, presided over by the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, the Emperor's brother, it was agreed to take no measures respecting religious affairs, but that each German state should regulate such matters at its own pleasure until a general council of the Church could be convened. The Elector John of Saxony, the Landgrave Philip of Hesse and other German princes, thus encouraged, proceeded to make great changes in the Church in their respective dominions. The mass was abolished, and the Church services were celebrated in the German language; while new systems of church government were introduced, convents were suppressed, and the lands and revenues of the Church were restricted to ecclesiastical purposes. Preaching was made the main pursuit of the clergy.

Lutheran Organization.

The Landgrave Philip of Hesse called a synod, which convened in October, 1526, and gave Lutheranism the definitive organization which it has ever since preserved. The duty of visiting all the churches of Saxony devolved upon Melanchthon, who was as active as Luther. The combined efforts of these two active and able men gave the Reformation such a mighty impulse that the Catholic princes of Germany were seriously alarmed. The printed copies of the formula which Melanchthon had composed, and the two Catechisms which Luther soon

prepared, disseminated the Reformed doctrines among both old and young.

Action of the Diet of Spires.

The Catholic German princes now combined to offer a more effectual resistance to the progress of the Reformation. In another imperial Diet convened at Spires in 1529, over which the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria also presided, the Catholic princes were in a majority. This Diet passed a decree "that the edicts of Worms should be observed in all the states in which they had been received; that the others should be free to continue in the new doctrines until the next general council. No one was allowed to preach in public against the mass or to hinder its celebration."

The Protestation.

This decree aroused the entire Lutheran party in the Diet, and the Lutheran princes and cities unanimously protested against this attack on the freedom of conscience and evangelical doctrine. This solemn *Protest,* duly signed by the Lutheran princes in the Diet, was sent to the Emperor Charles V.; and this circumstance gave the Lutherans the name of *Protestants*—a name ever since applied to all Christians outside of the Roman Catholic and Greek Churches.

Protesting Princes.

These protesting princes at Spires were the Elector John of Saxony; the Landgrave Philip of Hesse; the Dukes of Grubenhagen, Celle and Mecklenburg; Prince Wolfgang of Anhalt; two Counts of Mansfeld; the Margrave George of Brandenburg; and the cities of Magdeburg, Strassburg, Nuremberg, Ulm, Constance, Reutlingen, Windsheim, Memmingen, Lindau, Kempten, Heilbronn, Issny, Weissenburg, Nördlingen and St. Gallen.

Luther's Opposition to Warlike Means.

The Lutheran deputation met with a very cold reception from the Emperor Charles V., who refused to receive their protest. The protesting princes and cities would immediately have concluded a league for their mutual defense had not Luther and the other evangelical theologians forbidden it on the ground that "a magnaminous scrupulousness bade them reject the defense of the Word of God by worldly weapons."

Diet of Augsburg.

Having driven the French out of Italy, and ended his second war with Francis I. of France by the Peace of Cambray in 1529, the Emperor Charles V. returned to Germany in 1530, and convened a Diet of the Empire at Augsburg the same year for the twofold purpose of suppressing the Reformation and adopting measures for the defeat of the Turks, whose invasions of Hungary and Austria had created serious alarm.

Confession of Augsburg.

In this splendid imperial Diet at Augsburg, in 1530, the Lutheran princes who had protested in the Diet at Spires the preceding year presented the articles of their creed known as the *Confession of Augsburg,* which had been drawn up by the learned and peaceable Philip

Melanchthon in both the German and Latin languages, and which had been approved by Luther. In this famous document the protesting princes claimed that they did not wish to found a new Church, but merely to reform and purify the old one.

Catholic Refutation and Melanchthon's Apology.

After reading this document the Diet endeavored to effect a union of discordant elements in the Church by a conference of the men of moderate tempers selected by both parties. The Catholic theologians —Eck, Cochlaus, Wimpana, Faber and others—drew up a *Refutation* of the Confession of Augsburg, as it was called; and this was read to the assembled Diet. Melanchthon replied to the Catholic Refutation in a document of his own, called his *Apology*. The Emperor Charles V. afterward addressed the Diet, expressing his desire for the unity of the Church, and stating that otherwise he should be obliged to act in accordance with his oath as protector of the Holy Catholic Church.

Luther's Opposition.

The Diet of Augsburg was without results, as no reconciliation of opposing opinions could be effected, because Luther, who remained at Coburg during the sessions of the Diet, opposed the concessions required from the Reformed party. The protesting princes and the representatives of the principal imperial towns rejected the decisions of the Diet, and retired from Augsburg. The Emperor Charles V. declared that they must decide before the 15th of April upon the course that they would pursue. He called on the German princes to sustain him, declaring that he was bound by his oath and by his conscience.

The Emperor's Edict.

Its Provisions.

The Emperor's edict condemned the Lutheran heresy, and commanded all who had accepted it to return to their allegiance to the Holy Catholic Church. All the Church property that had been seized was to be restored, and the suppressed convents were to be reopened. All who disobeyed the Emperor's mandate were subject to outlawry.

League of Schmalkald.

The Emperor's decree did not intimidate the Lutherans the least; and the Elector John of Saxony, the Landgrave Philip of Hesse and the other protesting princes met at Schmalkald, in the Thuringian forest, in March, 1531, and concluded a league, defensive and offensive, for six years. The Catholic German princes dreaded the effect of a civil and religious war, as the Empire was constantly menaced by Turkish invasions; and Charles V. was obliged to conclude the Peace of Nuremberg with the League of Schmalkald in 1532.

Coronation of Ferdinand of Austria.

Fearing that a Protestant successor to Charles V. on the imperial throne of Germany would be chosen, the Catholic party in the Empire resolved to secure a Catholic successor at once; and the Catholic German princes accordingly elected the Emperor's brother, the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, who was crowned at Aix la Chapelle in 1531.

The Protestant Church of Germany was even already divided. Ulrich Zwingli, a priest of Glarus, born in 1484, was the leader of the

**Ulrich Zwingli and the Reformation in Switzerland.**

Reformation in Switzerland. He was a classically-educated priest, of republican principles. As Canon of Zurich he exerted himself zealously against the doctrine of indulgences, as preached by Samson, a Franciscan monk. He labored against all kinds of abuses, and against the Swiss custom of engaging as mercenaries in foreign military service.

**Zwingli's Reforms.**

Ulrich Zwingli was a man of practical understanding, without Luther's depth of mind or disposition, and did not concern himself with the reform of doctrine or creed, but with the improvement of life and morals. He engaged in the Reformation with little ceremony, as he desired to restore primitive Christianity in its simplest form. As he was agreed with the Chief Council of Zurich, he set about a thorough reform of ecclesiastical ritual and practice; banished all images, crosses, candles, altars and organs from the churches; and administered the Lord's Supper after the manner of the early Christian love-feasts, the communicants receiving the bread and wine while sitting.

**His Controversy with Luther about Transubstantiation.**

Zwingli engaged in an irreconcilable controversy with Luther concerning transubstantiation. Zwingli recognized nothing but a token of remembrance and fellowship in that ceremony, and explained the words "this is my body" as meaning "this represents my body." Luther would not receive these words in such a sense, but maintained that Christ's blood and body were present in the bread and wine administered in the holy sacrament. The Landgrave Philip of Hesse sought to effect a reconciliation between the two sincere Reformers by means of a disputation between them at Marburg. Luther considered Zwingli's view a denial of Christ, and when Zwingli offered his brotherly hand with tears Luther drew back his own hand, thus refusing to receive the ardent Swiss reformer as a brother. As Luther opposed any union with those German towns which had adopted Zwingli's doctrines, those towns presented their own confession of faith to the Diet of Augsburg.

**Catholic and Protestant Cantons.**

Zwingli's appearance in Switzerland was followed by disturbances similar to those which followed Luther's appearance in Germany. The Church was reformed according to Zwingli's principles in Zurich, Basle, Berne, Schaffhausen, the Rhinethal and other cantons. The Catholics contended with the Zwinglians in Appenzell, the Grisons, St. Gall, Glarus and other cantons. In Zug, and in the four forest cantons —Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden and Lucerne—the Catholic faith maintained its ascendency, because of the superior influence of the monks and clergy over the populace, and because the custom of engaging in foreign military service, which formed the chief means of support among these people, was opposed by the Reformers.

Agitation in Switzerland.

The five Catholic cantons concluded an alliance with Austria, and vigorously and sternly suppressed every innovation; while Berne and Zurich aided the Reformation in the frontier towns with bigoted zeal and violence. In this agitated condition of Switzerland a civil and religious war was inevitable, especially as Zwingli meditated such a revolution as would give the political supremacy in the Republic to the two most powerful cantons, Berne and Zurich.

Civil War of Religion in Switzerland.

Mutual revilings of the clergy, which proceeded with perfect immunity from punishment, increased the public irritation and provoked hostilities. Berne and Zurich blockaded the public roads, thus preventing the transportation of goods and the necessaries of life—a proceeding which exasperated the Catholic cantons. The Catholics made secret preparations and attacked the people of Zurich unawares.

Battle of Kappel.

The Zurichers, surprised and irresolute, and forsaken by the Bernese, sent a force of two thousand men against double that number of Catholics, but were totally defeated in the bloody battle of Kappel, in 1531, in which Zwingli was slain.

Death of Zwingli.

The brave Zwingli had accompanied his followers as field preacher, and fell beside the banner of the city; and along with him perished the staunchest friends of the Reformation in Switzerland. His dead body was subjected to the insults of his indignant foes, after which it was burned and the ashes scattered to the winds.

Catholic Victory.

The Catholic triumph restored the Roman Church in many places in Switzerland that had seemed to favor the Reformation, thus producing the religious divisions that have prevailed in the Swiss Republic ever since.

## SECTION IV.—EMPEROR CHARLES V. AND WAR OF RELIGION IN GERMANY (A. D. 1531–1558).

League of Schmalkald.

As the Emperor Charles V., after the Peace of Cambray, in 1529, seemed determined to suppress the religious Reformation in his dominions, the Protestant princes of Germany, with the Elector of Saxony and the Landgrave of Hesse at their head, united in 1531 for their own protection, and formed an alliance, known as the *League of Schmalkald*, which was joined by the Kings of England, France, Denmark and Sweden.

Effect of the Turkish Invasions.

The Emperor of Germany was obliged to avoid hostilities with his Protestant subjects at this time, in consequence of the formidable invasions of the Austrian territories by the Turks, who were then the most powerful people in Europe. Thus these constant Turkish invasions were highly favorable to the cause of the Reformation, as the Protestants of Germany refused to assist the Emperor in driving back

the Turks, so long as the sword of Catholic vengeance was raised over their heads. The plans of Charles V. for the extermination of heresy were thus frustrated, and he found himself obliged to conclude with the League of Schmalkald the Peace of Nuremberg, in 1532, thus postponing the civil war of religion in Germany for fourteen years.

Peace of Nuremberg.

The Peace of Nuremberg, which was confirmed by the German imperial Diet at Ratisbon, granted full liberty to preach and publish the doctrines of the Augsburg Confession. By this treaty both parties agreed to refrain from hostilities until a Council of the Church should be assembled to settle the division which thus distracted Christendom. Pope Clement VII. had been vehemently urged to convene such a Council. In the meantime the law proceedings were to cease. While the treaty bound the Protestants, it gave them no assurance for the future; but it afforded great opportunities for the diffusion of the Gospel throughout every portion of Germany.

Duke Ulrich of Wurtemberg.

The Lutheran form of worship was introduced into the Duchy of Wurtemberg. Duke Ulrich of Wurtemberg, a hot-tempered and cruel prince, had with his own hand murdered Hans von Hutten, a knight of his court, from motives of jealousy. He had so ill treated his wife that she fled from him, and he had conquered the imperial city of Reutlingen. He was at length outlawed for disturbing the peace of the country, and was driven from his land and his vassals by the Suabian League.

Lutheranism in Wurtemberg.

For fourteen years Ulrich was forced to lead a wandering life in exile from his dukedom, which meanwhile came under the dominion of Austria. At length the Landgrave Philip of Hesse resolved to restore Wurtemberg to its exiled duke, who was then living at his court. Philip accordingly led a well-equipped army into Suabia, defeated the Austrian governor at Laufen, on the Neckar, and reëstablished Ulrich in the government of his duchy. Ulrich was joyfully welcomed by his subjects, who had forgotten his former tyranny, and who were easily induced to accept the Lutheran doctrines, which Ulrich had embraced during his exile, and which he now caused to be disseminated by Brenz and Schnepf. The Lutheran Church was firmly established in the Duchy of Wurtemberg, and the University of Tübingen was one of the most celebrated Lutheran seats of learning.

The Anabaptists.

As we have seen, there were extremists in the new Church. Thomas Münzer's death had not suppressed the doctrines of the Anabaptists, who regarded their own passions as divine inspirations. In spite of the opposition of the leaders of the Reformation, and the discouragement given by all the lawful magistrates, the Anabaptists would make their appearance at various places in Germany. These fanatical doctrines displayed themselves in the most formidable manner in Münster

where the Reformation had made violent headway and driven the bishop and canons into exile.

Their Communistic Community at Munster.

It was soon apparent that Rottman, an influential preacher of the Reformation at Münster, was infected with Anabaptist ideas. He was at length aided by Jan Matthys and his countryman and disciple, the tailor, John Bockhold, called John of Leyden; whereupon the Anabaptists acquired such ascendency at Münster that they soon had possession of all the city offices, drove all such of the inhabitants as refused to accept their doctrines out of the city in the midst of winter, and divided their property among themselves. They then established a religious commonwealth in which Jan Matthys had absolute power, introduced the communistic plan of a community of goods, and defended the city against the besieging force of the Bishop of Münster.

Their Fanaticism

The fanaticism of the Anabaptists of Münster was heightened when Jan Matthys lost his life in a sally against the besiegers, when John of Leyden was placed at the head of the new commonwealth. John of Leyden selected twelve elders from the most violent of the fanatics, and entrusted them with the government of the city of Münster. Among these, Knipperdoling, who was burgomaster and executioner, acted the most conspicuous part. He introduced the practice of polygamy, and put to death without mercy all who denounced this outrage on Christian morality.

Action of John of Leyden.

When the fanaticism of the Anabaptists of Münster had reached its height, John of Leyden assumed the title of "King of the New Israel," which he claimed by Divine inspiration. This "tailor king" had for his insignia a crown and a globe suspended by a golden chain. With this insignia, and magnificently attired, he set up the "Chair of David" in the market-place of Münster, where he sat for the administration of justice. He introduced a government in which tyranny and fanaticism were mingled, and in which spiritual pride and carnal lust were associated in the most repulsive manner.

Overthrow of the Anabaptists.

The Anabaptists for a long time made a courageous and successful resistance to the attacks of their imperfectly-armed foes. They still resolutely maintained their defense when the besieging army of the Bishop of Münster had been reinforced by imperial troops, and when the beleaguered city began to suffer the horrors of famine. They resisted with the courage of desperation even when the enemy were within the walls of the city. Rottman was slain while fighting. John of Leyden and Knipperdoling were put to death by torture, and their dead bodies were suspended in iron cages on the tower; while many were executed, and the rest were driven into exile. The bishop, the canons and the nobility returned; and Roman Catholicism, which was then reëstablished in all its rigor, has ever since prevailed in Münster.

Menno Simon and the Mennonites.

A few decades later the Anabaptists experienced a complete reformation of their doctrines and discipline under the direction and leadership of Menno Simon; and in that condition, under the name of *Mennonites*, they have continued to the present day, and have been distinguished for their simplicity of dress and manners, and for their rejection of a separate priesthood, of infant baptism, of oaths, of military service and the use of law. Under Menno Simon's direction they abandoned those principles of an earlier period which were in direct antagonism to Christian morality and the public welfare. In their old ancestral homes their descendants lead a quiet life as tenant farmers and peasants. Many are now living in the United States of America.

Protestant Princes of Germany.

We have seen that the leading Protestant princes of Germany were the Elector John the Steadfast of Saxony and the Landgrave Philip of Hesse. The Elector John the Steadfast, who succeeded his father Frederick the Wise in 1525, died in 1532, and was succeeded by his son John Frederick. The Duke of Cleves was also one of the greatest of the Protestant princes of Germany; and inherited Guelders and Zutphen, in the Netherlands, through the extinction of the family of Egmont, as well as his father's duchy of Cleves and his mother's inheritance of Berg, Jülich and Ravensberg. His estates lay along the Rhine, from Cologne, in Germany, to the vicinity of Utrecht, in the Netherlands, and from the Werre to the Meuse. At length Lutheranism was established in the Duchy of Saxony and in the Electorate of Brandenburg, after the death of their last Catholic princes.

Lutheranism in Brandenburg.

The Margrave Albert of Brandenburg had become a Lutheran in the early part of the Reformation; but the *Electoral* branch of the Brandenburg House of Hohenzollern held fast to Roman Catholicism until after the death of the Elector Joachim I., in 1535. His son and successor, Joachim II., received the Eucharist under both Catholic and Lutheran forms at Spandau in 1539; whereupon the Electorate of Brandenburg embraced the Lutheran doctrine.

Lutheranism in the Two Saxonies.

The *Electorate* of Saxony, under the elder, or Ernestine branch of the Saxon dynasty, had been the birthplace and early stronghold of the Reformation; but the *Duchy* of Saxony, under the younger, or Albertine branch of the same dynasty, had adhered to the Roman Church until after the death of Duke George, in 1539. His brother and successor, Henry the Pious, who was devoted to the Reformation, as was also his son Maurice, established the Lutheran worship in Meissen, Dresden and Leipsic.

Protestantism in the North of Germany.

The conversion of the Duchy of Saxony and the Electorate of Brandenburg to the Lutheran faith sealed the fate of the Roman Catholic Church in the whole North of Germany, and the Protestant worship now prevailed from the Rhine to the Baltic. Conferences

between Roman and Protestant divines were held at Frankfort-on-the-Main in 1540, and before the German imperial Diet at Ratisbon in 1541, which brought the two religious parties nearer to agreement, but did not lead to peace.

Its Final Triumph in Brunswick.

Henry of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, a cruel and profligate prince, alone adhered to the Roman Church, more from his animosity to the Landgrave Philip of Hesse, the former friend of his youth, than from conviction; but the Protestant faith triumphed even in Wolfenbüttel, when Henry was overpowered by Hessian and Saxon troops and carried into captivity, after a fierce controversy, alike deterimental to the dignity of princes and to human nature.

Lutheranism in the Palatinate.

Otho Heinrich ordered Osiander, the Nuremberger preacher, to teach the Lutheran doctrines in the Upper Palatinate; and a few weeks before Luther's death the Eucharist was administered in both the Lutheran and Catholic forms in the Palatinate of the Rhine, after the congregation which assembled to hear mass in the Church of the Holy Ghost on January 3, 1546, had sung the Lutheran hymn: "Salvation hath visited us."

In Baden-Durlach, Cologne and Cleves.

Baden-Durlach likewise accepted the Reformed confession. Archbishop Hermann, Elector of Cologne, proposed to his Estates a moderate plan of reformation; and the Duke of Cleves seemed disposed to join the League of Schmalkald. The Roman Catholic Church now appeared doomed in Germany if the progress of the Reformation was not forcibly checked. The Emperor Charles V. was convinced that neither imperial Diets nor religious discussions could effect a restoration of the unity of the Church.

Council of Trent Summoned.

Importuned by the Emperor Charles V., Pope Paul III. summoned a Council of the Church to meet at Trent, in the Tyrol, for the purpose of effecting a reconciliation of opposing opinions and restoring the unity of the Church. The Protestants, foreseeing that their doctrines would be condemned in a Council held under the auspices of the Pope, rejected it as partial, and demanded, in its stead, a general synod of the Church of Germany. The Council, however, assembled at Trent, in December, 1545. Dr. Martin Luther died in his native city, Eisleben, in Saxony, on the 18th of February, 1546.

Luther's Death.

Beginning of the Religious War of Schmalkald.

The very first decision of the Council of Trent rendered a reconciliation of opposing opinions hopeless. The Emperor, having concluded a disgraceful peace with Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, now determined to crush the Reformation by force of arms; and in the year 1546 the Religious War of Schmalkald broke out between Charles V. and his Protestant German subjects.

Preparations of Charles V.

The Emperor had for some time been secretly preparing for war by mustering one army in Italy, another in Austria and a third in

the Netherlands. Pope Paul III. aided him by contributions of troops and money, and by authorizing the sale of monastic property in Spain and a tax upon the clergy in the same kingdom.

**Preparations of the League of Schmalkald.**

Though late in discerning the object of the Emperor's preparations, the League of Schmalkald determined to defend the Protestant cause, and promptly put its forces in the field under the command of the Elector John Frederick of Saxony and the Landgrave Philip of Hesse. The Lutheran cities of Germany also raised a large army, and placed it under the command of Sebastian Schärtlin, one of the ablest generals of his time.

**Protestant German Princes Outlawed.**

Charles V. first broke his coronation-oath by bringing foreign troops into Germany, and then violated the imperial constitution by placing the leaders of the Schmalkald forces and their followers under the ban of the Empire—the highest penalty of treason. This sentence, which could not be legally published without the consent of the imperial Diet, declared the Protestant princes to be rebels and outlaws, absolved their subjects from allegiance and confiscated all their territories.

**Opening of Hostilities.**

The princes of the League of Schmalkald replied to the Emperor's sentence of outlawry by a declaration of war, in which they renounced all allegiance to "Charles of Ghent, pretended Emperor." The army of the Lutheran city of Strassburg hastened to occupy the forts of Ehrenberg and Kufstein, to prevent the Pope's forces from entering Bavaria through the passes of the Tyrol. Thus the Protestant forces were promptly in the field, and they were superior to the Emperor's armies. Both armies were in motion in the summer of 1546, but the first campaign was indecisive.

**Movements of Charles V.**

The hesitation and lack of vigor on the part of the Protestant princes enabled the Emperor to bring his auxiliaries from Italy and to move from his precarious situation at Ratisbon to a more secure position at Ingolstadt, where he was joined by his troops from the Netherlands, thus enabling him to assume the offensive. He marched into Suabia and was followed thither by the Schmalkald army.

**Defection of Duke Maurice of Saxony.**

All the efforts of the Protestant princes of Germany were rendered fruitless by the defection of one of their own number—Duke Maurice of Saxony. This shrewd young prince had become the Duke of Albertine Saxony upon the death of his father, Henry the Pious, in 1541. Although a Lutheran in belief, Maurice had long withdrawn from the League of Schmalkald, because he envied and hated his cousin John Frederick, the Elector of Ernestine Saxony. Although the Landgrave Philip of Hesse was his father-in-law, Maurice formed a secret alliance with the Emperor Charles V., who had in the meantime reposed such confidence in the perfidious prince that he exempted him from the ban of the Empire.

His Seizure of Electoral Saxony.

The Lutheran princes had so little suspicion of the treachery of Maurice that his cousin, the Elector John Frederick, had during his absence entrusted him with the defense and administration of the Electorate of Saxony; but as soon as Maurice had been won over by the Emperor's flatteries and promises he betrayed his trust, and seized the Saxon Electorate for himself, with the aid of an army of Bohemians and Hungarians under the Emperor's brother Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria and King of Bohemia and Hungary.

Ruin of the Protestant Cause.

The unexpected defection of Maurice of Saxony utterly ruined the Protestant cause in Germany, and the League of Schmalkald was at the Emperor's mercy. Their common treasury was exhausted; many of their troops deserted for want of pay, and their army was obliged to retreat from Southern Germany.

Submission of Imperial Cities.

The triumphant Emperor now required the princes and cities of Southern Germany to submit to the imperial authority and to desert the League of Schmalkald, and the terrified imperial cities complied. Ulm, Heilbronn, Esslingen, Reutlingen, Augsburg, Frankfort, Strassburg and other cities surrendered their artillery, and obtained peace from the Emperor by the payment of heavy fines.

Submission of Protestant Princes.

The old Duke Ulrich of Würtemberg humbled himself to the Emperor, paid his contributions of war and surrendered his most important fortresses to the imperial troops. The old Archbishop Hermann, Elector of Cologne, anathematized by the Pope, theatened by Spanish troops and finally abandoned by his Estates, relinquished his office in favor of a Catholic, who soon restored the Roman worship in place of Lutheranism. By the spring of 1547 all of Southern Germany was reduced to submission to the Emperor without a battle having been fought.

John Frederick's Conquest of the Saxonies.

In the meantime victory had attended the Protestant arms in Northern Germany, where the Elector John Frederick had recovered his confiscated Electorate of Ernestine Saxony by repulsing and dispersing the army of Maurice, after which he overran and conquered Maurice's Duchy of Albertine Saxony as far as Dresden and Leipsic, being everywhere received with acclamations by the population, who were so unanimously on the Protestant side and against their perfidious duke that the apostate Maurice dared not levy an army among his own subjects.

Ferdinand of Austria and John Frederick of Saxony.

Ferdinand of Austria, King of Hungary and Bohemia, met with as little success in raising an army among the Bohemians, whom he offended by his efforts to change the elective Kingdom of Bohemia into a hereditary dominion for the Austrian House of Hapsburg. The Elector John Frederick might have raised a considerable army in both the Saxonies, bidden defiance to the whole Catholic power and made

himself Emperor of Protestant Germany, if his energy and enterprise had been equal to his many virtues and to his general excellence of character.

**Charles V. and John Frederick.**

The defeated Maurice, in his desperate extremity, invoked the Emperor's aid. Charles V. marched into Bavaria, although suffering from the gout, and effected a junction with the forces under Maurice and Ferdinand; after which he hastened into Saxony and came up with the Elector John Frederick, who was posted on the Elbe at Mühlberg, with six thousand troops. The Emperor with his army, twenty-seven thousand strong, crossed the Elbe almost before the eyes of the astonished Elector, who imagined the Emperor to be many miles distant. John Frederick's cavalry was surprised while engaged in a retreat, on a Sunday morning in April, 1547, while the Elector was attending Divine worship; and the Emperor Charles V. won a victory in the battle of Mühlberg, where the Elector John Frederick was wounded in the face and taken prisoner.

**Battle of Muhlberg.**

**John Frederick's Overthrow and Captivity.**

With the capitulation of Wittenberg, the capital of the Saxon Electorate, all of John Frederick's electoral and princely rights were surrendered to the Emperor; but the vanquished Elector's possessions, except a few towns, were divided between his cousin, Duke Maurice, and the Emperor's brother, Ferdinand of Austria, King of Bohemia and Hungary. John Frederick remained in captivity at the Emperor's court, and his children became pensioners of their unfaithful kinsman.

**John Frederick Compelled to Surrender Saxony to Maurice.**

In captivity John Frederick manifested the serenity of soul resulting from a good conscience and a firm trust in God. With the greatest composure he heard the sentence of death that the Emperor had pronounced against him, and without even interrupting the game of chess in which he was engaged. But Charles V. did not venture to carry this terrible sentence into execution. He changed the punishment to imprisonment for life, upon condition that John Frederick should surrender his fortresses to the Emperor and relinquish his electoral dignity and his dominions to Maurice, who was solemnly invested with his new dignity by the Emperor himself, while the deposed and captive John Frederick looked on the ceremony from the windows of his prison. Thus the Electorate of Saxony was transferred from the Ernestine to the Albertine branch of the Saxon dynasty, remaining thenceforth in the latter's possession.

**Imperial Defeats and Victories.**

During the spring of 1547 the imperial army under Duke Eric of Brunswick was forced to raise the siege of Bremen, and was defeated near Drachenburg; but the arms of the victorious Protestants were paralyzed by the news of the capitulation of Wittenberg, and all of Northern Germany except Magdeburg was soon reduced to submission to the Emperor.

THE FIELD OF THE CLOTH OF COLD, JUNE 15, 1520

From the Painting by A. H. Debay

Charles V. next proceeded to punish the Landgrave Philip of Hesse. The Electors Maurice of Saxony and Joachim II. of Brandenburg interceded for the unfortunate prince, and obtained from the Emperor the assurance "that if he would make an unconditional surrender, apologize for his proceedings and deliver up his castles, he should be punished neither with death nor with perpetual imprisonment." These conditions were subsequently modified during a personal interview, and Maurice of Saxony and Joachim II. of Brandenburg assured the Landgrave Philip of the safety of his person and possessions.

**Landgrave Philip of Hesse.**

Relying on this assurance and provided with a safe-conduct, Philip of Hesse appeared before the Emperor Charles V. at Halle, begged pardon on his knees in the presence of the brilliant assembly of courtiers, promising to surrender his artillery, demolish all his fortresses but one, release the prisoners whom he had taken and pay a considerable fine. Notwithstanding his humiliating submission, the terms of the treaty were evaded, and the Landgrave Philip was made a prisoner by the most shameful treachery. Being invited to supper with the Duke of Alva, the commander of the Spanish auxiliaries in the Emperor's service, Philip went to the Castle of Halle, where he was detained as a prisoner in spite of all protestations.

**His Humiliating Submission.**

**His Treacherous Captivity.**

Charles V. could not deny himself the triumph of having the two leading Protestant princes of the Empire in his power. He soon afterward retired from Saxony, taking his two illustrious captives with him. The captivity of the two great Protestant princes contributed to the Emperor's growing unpopularity in Germany, and so led to a coldness between the opportunistic Maurice of Saxony and the Emperor; but it contributed to overawe resistance in Bohemia, where the Protestant army was soon dispersed. The Bohemian nobles hastened to submit to King Ferdinand, and Prague itself surrendered after a short resistance. The Protestant rebellion in Bohemia resulted in a firmer establishment of the power of the Austrian House of Hapsburg in that kingdom and throughout the German Empire.

**Effect of the Triumph of Charles V.**

**Protestant Submission in Bohemia.**

Pope Paul III. was alarmed at the Emperor's growing power too late, and had recalled the papal auxiliaries from Germany. By favoring the conspiracy of Fiesco at Genoa, the Pope endeavored to place that republic under French instead of imperial influence; but the death of the daring conspirator Fiesco, who sought to usurp the office of Doge, frustrated the Pope's design, and the Doria family remained in power in Genoa.

**Pope Paul III. and the Plot of Fiesco in Genoa.**

The dissension between the Pope and the Emperor was still more embittered by the murder of the Duke of Parma, a son of Pope Paul III. and an Italian tyrant of the most odious type. Instead of punishing this crime, Charles V. appeared to almost assume responsibility for

**Murder of the Duke of Parma.**

it by occupying Placentia, the scene of the murder, with imperial troops, and refusing to invest the murdered duke's son, who was his own son-in-law, with the Duchy of Parma.

**Councils of Trent and Bologna.**

The Council of Trent assembled on the 13th of December, 1545. The division in the Church was made greater than before; and the Pope, suspecting the Emperor of a design to limit the papal power, removed the Council to Bologna, in Italy; but Charles V. forbade the clergy to leave Trent. The Spanish and Neapolitan prelates obeyed the Emperor by remaining at Trent, while the other thirty-four passed into Italy; and the two Councils, instead of restoring peace and unity to Christendom, began a war of words between each other.

**Augsburg Interim.**

For the purpose of bringing about a restoration of the unity of the Church, the Emperor Charles V. published an edict, which set forth how matters should be conducted until the termination of the Council of Trent. Accordingly three divines, representing respectively the Old Catholic, the New Catholic and the Lutheran parties, were appointed to draw up a Confession of Faith which should reconcile all religious controversies, at least until a more generally accepted Council than those of Trent and Bologna could be convened. This decree, which was called the *Augsburg Interim*, was at first designed for both religious parties, but was afterwards restricted to the Protestants. It permitted to the Lutherans the use of the cup and the marriage of the priests, and indefinite modes of expression were used to approach the Protestant opinions on the doctrines of justification, the mass, etc.; but the old usages were retained in the celebration of Divine worship and in the ceremonies.

**Catholic and Protestant Opposition to the Interim.**

In striving to please all parties Charles V. pleased none; and the Augsburg Interim encountered equally violent opposition from the Pope at Rome, from the Calvinists at Geneva and from the Lutherans at Magdeburg. Nevertheless the Emperor submitted it to the German imperial Diet at Augsburg, in May, 1548, for acceptance without discussion. The Archbishop-Elector of Mayence immediately arose and thanked the Emperor for his efforts to restore peace to the Church, and declared the Interim to be fully approved by the Diet. This unauthorized assumption passed unchallenged on that occasion; but the Elector Maurice of Saxony and his deposed cousin John Frederick soon entered protests, as did also several imperial cities.

**Flight of Lutheran Preachers.**

The Protestant preachers could not be induced to accept a religion that was offensive to their consciences, by being deprived of their offices, their property or their freedom. The preachers who were thus driven from their posts fled from their homes and firesides by secret paths to the North of Germany, where the Augsburg Interim was wholly rejected. Thus almost four hundred Lutheran preachers

became exiles, and most of them found refuge at Magdeburg, which was under the ban of the Empire, as was also Constance, which was the chief center of opposition to the Interim in the South.

Capture of Constance.

The Emperor's brother, Ferdinand of Austria, Bohemia and Hungary, attacked and captured Constance, and annexed it to the dominions of the Austrian House of Hapsburg, in defiance of its ancient privileges. Magdeburg sustained a longer resistance and became the stronghold of Lutheranism.

Defense of Magdeburg.

Flight of Lutheran Preachers from Saxony.

Many Lutheran preachers also fled from their homes in Saxony, the cradle of the Reformation, because of their dislike to the Leipsic Interim, which was composed by Melanchthon, who thereby subjected himself to the imputation of weakness and cowardice. These also found refuge at Magdeburg, whence many pamphlets, satires, satirical poems and wood-cuts were issued, designed to bring hatred and contempt upon the Augsburg and Leipsic Interims and their authors.

Edict of Charles V.

Circle of Burgundy.

After having, as he imagined, suppressed religious innovations by means of the Augsburg Interim, the Emperor Charles V. proceeded to reform the Catholic Church in Germany by a special edict remarkable for its great wisdom and moderation. The same Diet at Augsburg incorporated the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands with the Germano-Roman Empire under the name of the Circle of Burgundy.

Pope Julius III. and Charles V.

Pope Paul III. died in November, 1549; whereupon the Cardinal Del Monte was elected Pope by the conclave of cardinals, and assumed the title of Julius III. The new Pope courted the Emperor's favor by reopening the Council of Trent, while Charles V. summoned a new German imperial Diet at Augsburg to devise means for compelling the Protestant party in Germany to submit to the Council's decrees.

Spanish Inquisition in the Netherlands.

As Charles V. advanced in years, and as his constitutional melancholy became settled more heavily over his mind, he more willingly engaged in the work of religious persecution. He had just introduced the Spanish Inquisition into the Netherlands; and his cruel Edict of Brussels threatened the death-penalty against all who should buy, sell, possess or read any Protestant book, or who should meet to study the Scriptures or speak against any of the Roman Catholic doctrines. Men who were guilty of such offenses were beheaded, while women were either burned or buried alive.

Maurice's Desertion of Charles V.

When the Emperor Charles V. seemed to have attained the object of his desires; when everything seemed to insure his elevation to the position of temporal head of all Christendom, and when the Council of the Church had reassembled at Trent, Duke Maurice of Saxony, the prince to whom Charles V. was indebted for the overthrow of the League of Schmalkald, seeing to what dangers the civil and religious liberties of Germany were exposed by the ambitious schemes of the

Emperor, and offended because of the captivity of his father-in-law, Philip of Hesse, suddenly formed a secret alliance with King Henry II. of France, the son and successor of Francis I., but concealed his designs until the most favorable time arrived for their execution.

**Maurice's Alliance with Henry II. of France.**

The treaty between Maurice of Saxony and Henry II. of France provided for combined action against the Emperor Charles V. One of the articles authorized the French king to seize the towns of Metz, Toul, Verdun and Cambray, and to hold them as Imperial Vicar—an arrangement by which France held these towns over three centuries. This treaty was signed at the Castle of Chambord, near Blois, by Henry II. of France and the Margrave Albert of Brandenburg, January, 1552.

**Maurice's Open War with the Emperor.**

Maurice immediately granted freedom of religion to the Protestant city of Magdeburg, which he had been for some time besieging; and then, suddenly throwing off the mask, he published a manifesto announcing his intention to maintain the laws and constitution of the German Empire, to protect the Protestant religion and to liberate the Landgrave of Hesse. In March, 1552, Maurice advanced into Southern Germany with three divisions of his army and took possession of Augsburg.

**The Imperial Forces.**

The Emperor was not alarmed by rumors of Maurice's proceedings, and had sent large detachments of his army into Hungary and Italy, while posting himself with a small guard at Innsbruck, in the Tyrol, to watch the proceedings of the Council of Trent.

**Maurice's Invasion of the Tyrol.**

Maurice marched into the Tyrol to make the Emperor a prisoner at Innsbruck. He put to flight a small force which the Emperor had collected upon the borders of the Tyrol, and took the pass and castle of Ehrenberg by storm. The Council of Trent was broken up in confusion; and Charles V., who was then afflicted with the gout, escaped with difficulty from Innsbruck in the cold and darkness of a rainy night, being carried in a litter over the snow-covered mountain roads into Carinthia. Before his hasty flight from Innsbruck, Charles V. released the captive John Frederick of Saxony, whom he had kept a prisoner since the battle of Mühlberg. Maurice might perhaps have taken the Emperor prisoner, but desisted because he "had no cage big enough for such a bird."

**Flight of Charles V.**

**French Invasions.**

In the meantime Maurice's ally, King Henry II. of France, invaded Lorraine and seized the strong towns of Toul, Metz and Verdun, according to treaty; after which he marched into Luxemburg, where he captured several towns, whose plunder he bestowed on his courtiers and higher officers.

Alarmed at the rapid advance of Maurice, the Emperor's brother, Archduke Ferdinand of Austria, immediately concluded with the

Protestant princes the Religious Peace of Passau, by which the Protestants of Germany were allowed perfect religious freedom, the Landgrave Philip of Hesse was set at liberty, and a permanent peace and amnesty were decided upon, August, 1552. This was the first victory of the Reformation.

**Religious Peace of Passau.**

After the conclusion of the Peace of Passau, the forces of the Schmalkaldic League were either disbanded or enlisted in the war against the Turks, which had again broken out in Hungary, through an imaginary slight which the Sultan had inflicted upon Martinuzzi, Bishop of Waradin and guardian of the infant Zapolya. The restless and warlike bishop offered to betray the interests of his ward by securing the principality of Transylvania and the Hungarian crown to King Ferdinand on condition of being made a cardinal and governor of Transylvania.

**War with the Turks Renewed.**

The Turkish army at once invaded Transylvania, and was opposed by the united forces of Martinuzzi and Castaldo, Ferdinand's general; but the cardinal's arrogance became unendurable; and the general accused him of a secret understanding with the Turks, and caused him to be assassinated, with the consent of King Ferdinand, whose memory is stained with many similar crimes.

**Turkish Invasion of Transylvania.**

The Turks now overran all of Southern Hungary, and took possession of Temesvar and the other fortresses of the Banat; and their political and religious customs remained established there until 1716. The approach of Maurice of Saxony after the Peace of Passau forced the Turks to retire from Erlau, a little town in the North of Hungary, which had withstood three furious assaults from the Ottoman forces, thus holding them at bay until succor could arrive.

**Turkish Invasion of Hungary.**

Late in 1552 the Emperor Charles V., at the head of an army of a hundred thousand men, undertook the recapture of Metz from the French. That strong fortress was gallantly defended by Francis, Duke of Guise, and all the chivalry of France. The Margrave Albert of Brandenburg, who had hitherto refused to accede to the Peace of Passau, and had been ravaging Western Germany as the French king's ally, now suddenly changed sides, defeated and captured the Duke d'Aumale and made peace with the Emperor.

**Siege of Metz by Charles V.**

**Albert of Brandenburg.**

Metz was so skillfully and successfully defended by the French garrison under the Duke of Guise that the Emperor Charles V., after a siege of little more than two months, was obliged to raise the siege and to beat a disgraceful retreat, having lost about forty thousand men during the siege, his Spanish and Italian troops having suffered severely from the cold of winter and from the heavy rains which drenched their camp. Metz then became wholly French, and Lutheran books were burned and the Protestant worship was suppressed. That

**Successful Defense of Metz by the French.**

fortified town remained in the possession of France until 1870, when it was recovered by Germany.

Turkish Pirates in the Mediterranean.

In the meantime the Turkish corsair Draghut ravaged the Mediterranean coasts. From every cliff and castle along the Italian shores an anxious lookout was kept for the sails of this marauder, whose approach was too frequently signaled to the terrified inhabitants of the villages by columns of smoke. Besides capturing richly laden merchantmen at sea, the pirates frequently penetrated inland, carrying into slavery all whom they could seize. They attacked the island of Corsica, which then belonged to Genoa, and took several places; but there the Turks quarreled with their Christian allies, the French, and seized all the Corsicans who were fit to row in their galleys, along with several French nobles, whom they detained for ransom.

Albert of Brandenburg.

As the Margrave Albert of Brandenburg continued his wars and robberies in Lower Saxony, a new league of German princes was formed against him, and Maurice of Saxony marched against him to force him to accept peace. Maurice was victorious in the long and obstinate battle of Sievershausen, in 1553, but received a gun-shot wound, of which he died two days afterward, in the thirty-second year of his age and in the flower of his strength. He was a very able man, both "prudent and secret, enterprising and energetic." His brother Augustus succeeded him as Elector of Saxony; and the Electorate of Saxony remained in the possession of the Albertine branch of the Saxon dynasty until the dissolution of the Germano-Roman Empire in 1806, as did also the Kingdom of Saxony thereafter.

Battle of Sievershausen and Death of Maurice.

Albert's Last Years.

Albert of Brandenburg suffered another defeat near Brunswick, and passed the remaining years of his life as a dependent upon the French court or upon his brother-in-law, the Duke of Baden. Germany enjoyed tranquillity during the last half of the sixteenth century, during which it took little part in general European affairs.

Tranquillity of Germany.

Siege and Capture of Terouenne and Hesdin by Charles V.

In 1553 Charles V., after a vigorous siege, took the town of Terouenne from the French by assault, destroyed it and massacred the entire garrison. Hesdin was also taken by the imperial forces; and during the siege of that fortress Emmanuel Philibert, eldest son of the exiled Duke of Savoy, exhibited those remarkable talents which regained for him his father's dominions in due time. The duke died a few months afterward at Vercelli, which the French seized and plundered almost immediately upon his death.

Pope Paul IV.

Pope Julius III. died in 1554, and his successor, Marcellus II., soon afterward also passed to his grave; whereupon John Peter Caraffa, who had been distinguished for his piety, learning, and simple and blameless life, was elected Pope by the conclave of cardinals, and assumed the title of Paul IV. The new Pope was a member of the

Oratory of Divine Love, which had been instituted during the pontificate of Leo X. He was also one of the founders of the Theatins. He was seventy-nine years of age when he became Pope. He appeared in public in a magnificent array of velvet and gold, and his daily life was characterized by princely pomp and ceremony. His ruling passion was hatred of the Emperor Charles V., whose jealousy of the Popes he regarded as the cause of the alienation of the Germans from the Roman Church. Paul IV. accordingly hastened to enter into a close alliance with King Henry II. of France, and magnified all his causes of disagreement with the Emperor.

**Religious Peace of Augsburg**

In 1555, in accordance with the terms of the Peace of Passau, Charles V. summoned a Diet of the German Empire at Augsburg; and, after much deliberation, this Diet concluded the *Religious Peace of Augsburg* the same year, by which the Protestants of Germany were allowed perfect liberty of conscience and full toleration for their religion, as well as equal civil and political rights with the Catholics, and to retain possession of the ecclesiastical property which they had seized. A free right of departure was granted to subjects who did not follow the religion of the Electors, and a free toleration was allowed those who remained. Each German state was secured in the right to maintain either the Protestant or the Catholic worship, or to tolerate both or prohibit whichever it pleased.

**A Subject of Future Dispute.**

The demand which the Catholics made that those of the clergy who should in the future become Protestants should lose their offices and incomes occasioned the most vehement disputes. It being impossible to come to an agreement, the point was left undecided, and was admitted as a spiritual reservation into the laws of peace—"a seed of bloody contests."

**Abdications of Charles V.**

The failure of the Emperor Charles V. to restore the unity of the Church made him lose his interest in the affairs of the world; and in 1555 and 1556, to the astonishment of the whole world, he followed the example of Diocletian by resigning the scepter of power, abdicating all his thrones and passing the remainder of his life in quiet retirement and monastic penance. The Emperor had this scheme in contemplation for a long time, and his failing health and recent political failures had made him more anxious than ever to carry it out. The recent death of his mother, Queen Joanna, whom the Spaniards had always regarded as their sovereign, made it possible for Charles to dispose of the Spanish crowns. In hours of prayer he imagined that he heard his mother's voice calling him away, and he determined to pass his remaining days in retirement.

With this object in view he called his son Philip, who had married Queen Mary of England, to Brussels and there invested him with the

His Abdications of the Crowns of the Netherlands, Spain, Naples and Spanish America.

Grand Mastership of the Order of the Golden Fleece. Then, in the presence of all the Estates of the Netherlands, October 25, 1555, the Emperor abdicated the sovereignty of the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, which he conferred upon his son PHILIP II., reviewed the events of his reign, implored the solemn assembly to pardon all the errors which he might have committed, and charged his son to defend the Catholic religion, to do justice and to love his subjects. His sister Mary, the widow of King Louis II. of Hungary, resigned the regency of the Netherlands at the same time; and Philip II. appointed the Duke of Savoy as her successor. In the presence of all the Spanish nobles in the Netherlands, assembled in the same hall several weeks afterward, Charles V. abdicated the crowns of Spain, Naples and Sicily, and the sovereignty of Spanish America, all of which were also conferred upon Philip II.

His Abdication of the German Imperial Crown.

In the autumn of 1556 Charles V. abdicated the German imperial crown in favor of his brother Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria and King of Bohemia and Hungary. This latter abdication was addressed to the Electors, princes and Estates of Germany, and was formally accepted by the German imperial Diet at Frankfort in 1558, when Ferdinand was chosen Emperor, after pledging himself to observe the Peace of Religion—a pledge which he honestly fulfilled. Thenceforth the House of Hapsburg remained divided into a Spanish and an Austrian branch.

Emperor Ferdinand I., A. D., 1556–1564.

Charles V. at San Yuste, in Spain.

Immediately after committing to his most trusted friends, the Prince of Orange and Chancellor Seld, the document by which he abdicated the imperial crown of Germany, Charles proceeded to Spain, accompanied by his two sisters, the dowager queens of Hungary and France. He retired to the province of Estremadura, in the West of Spain, passing the remaining two years of his life in the residence which he had built near the monastery of San Yuste, on the pleasant declivity of a hill, surrounded by plantations of trees. He passed his retirement in religious devotion, in cultivating his own garden and orchard and in mechanical inventions.

His Mechanical Diversions.

The ex-Emperor spent many hours with the Italian mechanician Torriano in making clocks and watches or in other delicate machinery. Having failed in repeated attempts to make two watches run exactly alike, he is said to have exclaimed: "I cannot make two watches run alike, and yet, fool that I was, I thought of governing so many nations of different languages and religions and living in different climes!"

His Mock Funeral and His Death.

Two years after his abdication the ex-Emperor felt his end approaching, and was seized with a fancy for going through the ceremonies of his own funeral. He attired himself in monkish costume, and joined in the mournful chants of the brotherhood of monks around

an empty coffin which was placed in the convent chapel. This solemn farce was turned into a reality in less than a month; as the great ex-monarch breathed his last on September 21, 1558, at the age of fifty-eight, worn out by toils of state rather than by years.

## SECTION V.—LUTHERANISM AND CALVINISM.

**Progress of the Reformation in Europe.**

Thus by the middle of the sixteenth century the Church of Rome had been repudiated by the Teutonic nations of Europe, except by Austria and some of the other German states. The Reformation also made some progress among the Latin nations, especially in France, but was checked in Italy and Spain, partly by the character of the people and partly by the severity of the Inquisition; many of the followers of the new doctrines dying in dungeons or at the stake, while many illustrious authors and scholars who advocated the new movement sought refuge in exile. Some embraced principles which even the Reformers rejected as heretical. The two Italian relatives Socínus denied Christ's divinity and the doctrine of the Trinity, views advocated by the Arians of the early Christian Church and by the modern Unitarians. The Spaniard Servetus held heterodox opinions respecting the Trinity; for which he perished at the stake at Geneva, through Calvin's instrumentality, in 1553.

**Socinus and Servetus.**

**Lutheranism in Germany.**

In Germany, the birthplace of the Reformation, the Lutheran form of worship strove long with the Catholic for the mastery. Lutheranism gradually spread from Saxony and Hesse over the neighboring states, attained the ascendency in the North of Germany, gained great headway in Suabia and Franconia, and extended itself from Strassburg into Alsace and Lorraine.

**Lutheranism in Prussia and the Baltic Region.**

In the early part of the Reformation the doctrines of Luther had penetrated to the region of the Vistula and the Baltic shores, where Albert of Brandenburg, the Grand Master of the Teutonic Order, pressed upon by the Poles and deserted by the Emperor and the Empire, had become a Lutheran, put an end to the Teutonic Order as a sovereign power by a treaty with King Sigismund I. of Poland in 1525, and received the eastern part of Prussia as a hereditary duchy under the suzerainty of the King of Poland. His children inherited the Prussian duchy, which finally came into the possession of the Electoral branch of the Brandenburg House of Hohenzollern, and became independent of Poland. In Courland and Livonia the same thing occurred with the Head of the Order of the Sword. Lutheranism was also established in the Scandinavian kingdoms, as we shall presently see.

Lutheranism in Austria, Hungary and Bohemia.

The Catholic form of worship was zealously championed by the Dukes of Bavaria, by the royal Austrian House of Hapsburg, by the spiritual Electors of the German Empire and by the prince-bishops. Ingolstadt was the great seat of Catholic learning in Germany. But the Emperors Ferdinand I. and Maximilian II. both sought not to offend the consciences of their subjects, thus allowing Lutheranism to gain many converts in the hereditary Austrian territories. The Protestants soon obtained religious toleration, and erected several churches in the archduchy of Austria and in the duchies of Carinthia and Styria. The Reformation made such rapid strides in Hungary and Transylvania that the Protestants outnumbered the Catholics, and acquired religious freedom and equal political rights with their opponents. The old Hussites of Bohemia mainly embraced the Lutheran doctrines. Notwithstanding the many treaties which guaranteed the rights of the Protestants in the Austrian dominions, those rights were disregarded by later rulers, who reëstablished the supremacy of the Catholic State Church.

Zwinglianism and Calvinism in Germany.

The Reformed Church which Ulrich Zwingli originated in Switzerland also spread itself into Germany at an early period. Zwingli's doctrines were accepted and supported by only a few towns in the South of Germany, until John Calvin, the refugee French Reformer in Geneva, adopted Zwingli's principles and fashioned them into a complete system of doctrine by uniting them with his own views, after which the Reformed Church in Germany obtained numerous accessions. Duke Frederick III. of Baden introduced this system into his own dominions from the Palatinate, and in 1559 he ordered Ursínus and Olevianus to draw up the *Heidelberg Catechism*, a widely-extended compend of the Zwinglian and Calvinistic doctrines.

Heidelberg Catechism.

Melanchthon's Disciples.

The Zwinglian and Calvinistic Church was also introduced into Hesse, Bremen and Brandenburg. Even Melanchthon and his disciples—called *Philippists* and *Cryptocalvinists*—inwardly accepted Calvin's views as correct. Melanchthon so embittered his last days by promulgating these opinions that he died calumniated and full of sorrow, in 1560, and his disciples in Saxony suffered persecution and imprisonment. An effort was made to restore harmony among the Protestants of Germany by the *Form of Concord*, a confession of faith subscribed by ninety-six of the Lutheran Estates of the Empire about the year A. D. 1580; but its only result was to confirm and aggravate the dissensions and animosities between the Lutherans and Calvinists of Germany. Thus, in the century of the Reformation, German Protestantism was divided between the Lutheran and the German Reformed Church, which are still the two great Protestant Church organizations in Germany.

Lutheran and German Reformed Churches.

Zwingli and the German Reformed Church.

Switzerland was divided between Protestantism and Catholicism, and the Zwinglian system which prevailed in the greater German cantons very nearly resembled the Calvinistic doctrine which was supreme in French Switzerland; so that Zwingli is considered the founder of the German Reformed Church, whose creed is based on the Heidelberg Catechism, the same as the Lutheron creed is based on the Augsburg Confession.

John Calvin and His Theocracy at Geneva.

John Calvin, or Jean Chauvin—the French Reformer—fled from persecution in France, to Geneva, in Switzerland; where he established a sort of theocracy, and endeavored to bring Christianity to its primitive simplicity in ceremonies and worship, excluding images, ornaments, organs, candles and crucifixes from the churches, and allowing no church feast but a rigorously-observed Sabbath, to be spent in prayer, preaching and the singing of Psalms, which Calvin's faithful fellow-minister, Theodore Beza, had translated into French. Calvin taught the creed of the great Christian Father, St. Augustine, that man is incapable of himself to do good and partake of salvation, and that the future destiny of every human creature is preordained from time of birth. Although Calvin had fled from persecution himself and had severely denounced religious intolerance on the part of the Catholics, he was very intolerant himself and became a violent persecutor, causing Servetus to be burned at the stake for denying the doctrine of the Trinity and Christ's divinity. Calvinism was generally rejected by the higher orders, because it opposed many prevalent amusements, such as the theater, dancing and the more refined pleasures of society. Like the ancient lawgivers, Calvin exercised unbounded influence at Geneva, in civil and religious affairs, and in education and manners, until his death in 1564.

Calvin's Character.

Calvin was a man of great intellect and moral power. He was severe to himself and to others, and hostile to all earthly pleasures. His doctrine is impressed with his character—severity and simplicity. He acquired a command over men by the reverence due to his strong and pure will.

Elders, or Presbyters.

The constitution of the Calvinistic Church is a republican synodical government. The congregation, represented by freely chosen *elders*, or *presbyters*, exercises the power of the Church, elects the ministers, watches over morals by means of the elders, administers the Church discipline and punishments and attends to the distribution of alms. The ministers and a part of the elders form the synod, which gives the Church laws to the different congregations.

Calvinism spread rapidly from Geneva into the South of France, into Scotland and into the Northern Netherlands. In France the Calvinists were called *Huguenots* and were rigorously persecuted, their min-

Calvinism in France, Scotland and the Netherlands.

isters being given to the flames. In Scotland they were called *Presbyterians*, because the affairs of their Church were managed by *elders*, or *presbyters*, elected by the congregations. The apostle of Calvinism in Scotland was the celebrated John Knox, who succeeded in establishing that faith as the state-religion of Scotland. In the Northern Netherland provinces Calvinism soon obtained a foothold, and became the state-religion of the new Dutch Republic (Holland); and in 1618 the views of the Arminians, who did not fully accept Calvin's doctrine of predestination, were condemned as heretical by the Synod of Dort, which upheld St. Augustine's doctrine of man's inability of himself to do good and be saved, and punished the Arminian leaders by death or imprisonment without the slightest tolerance.

## SECTION VI.—ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH AND SOCIETY OF JESUS.

Council of Trent and Its Decisions.

All the Popes during the Reformation made strenuous efforts to exterminate heresy; but the twice-interrupted Council of Trent, which first assembled in 1545, and which opened its third session in January, 1562, adjourned finally December 4, 1563, without effecting the desired result, although the Catholic Church was somewhat purified of its corruptions. This ecclesiastical assembly recognized as infallible the religious doctrines that had hitherto been considered orthodox, and embodied these doctrines in carefully-defined propositions. This Council established a purer code of morals, improved the Church discipline and inaugurated a more stringent supervision of the clergy.

Doctrine of Indulgences.

The Council of Trent affirmed that the use of indulgences as being "most salutary for the Christian people, and approved by the authority of councils, is to be retained in the Church"; but the council decreed that "in granting them moderation be observed, lest, by excessive facility, discipline may be enervated." All modern Church legislation on the subject of indulgences has been founded on the special instruction of this council; but as the decree of the council did not explicitly declare what is the exact effect of an indulgence, Pope Pius VI., more than two centuries later, further explained it in his famous bull, *Auctorem Fidei*, that an indulgence, received with due dispositions, remits not only the canonical penance attached to certain crimes in this life, but also the temporal punishment which the penitent would be obliged to undergo in purgatory after death.

Roman Catholic Reformation.

The Catholics regard the resolutions of the Council of Trent as their own Reformation, and these resolutions constitute the basis of the Roman Catholic Church as at present constituted. The work of the

Council of Trent was gradually accepted in all Roman Catholic countries as the final conclusion of the Catholic doctrine. In this manner every attempt at innovation was prevented, and Roman Catholicism was impressed with the character of stability; while development and change was the essence of Protestantism.

**Effect of Luther's Work on Catholicism.**

Luther's work was followed by gratifying results even for the Roman Church. The Protestant Reformation involved a Catholic Reformation. The formidable and growing opposition from without forced the Church of Rome to reform itself within, in order to preserve its existence. Thus, while religious beliefs and principles had undergone a remarkable transformation, especially in Northern and Central Europe, a Catholic reaction, or counter-revolution, had already commenced, which arrested the progress of the Reformation, and neutralized its results in Austria, Bohemia, Hungary, Italy and Spain, or, in other words, in all the countries subject to either the Austrian or the Spanish branch of the House of Hapsburg.

**Catholic Reaction.**

**Purification of the Roman Catholic Church.**

This was partly due to the powerful moral reaction felt almost equally within and without the Roman Church against the old-time venality and corruption of the clergy. Many virtuous prelates—the greatest and best of whom were Charles Borromeo, Archbishop of Milan—restored the respectability of the Church; and ever since no Pope has disgraced his station by the shameful iniquities of Alexander VI. or the refined voluptuousness of Leo X. As the reforms for which Wycliffe, Huss, Luther, Melanchthon, Zwingli and Calvin had striven were thus effected, the necessity for a separation from the old established Church became less strongly felt.

**Ignatius Loyola and the Jesuits.**

The efforts of the Popes to suppress the Protestant Reformation, or to arrest its progress, found their chief support in the Order of Jesuits, which was founded in the year 1540 by the enthusiastic and chivalrous Ignatius Loyola, a Spanish nobleman. During the healing of the wound which he had received at the defense of Pampeluna in 1521, his mind was turned to serious reflection by reading the Lives of the Saints. He accordingly renounced the military profession, and with prayers and penance made a toilsome pilgrimage to the Holy Sepulcher at Jerusalem, but returned to his native land at the command of the papal legate.

**Loyola's Education.**

So uneducated was Ignatius Loyola at the age of thirty-three that he then had to begin his elementary education. With incredible perseverance he acquired the education which he needed, beginning at a school at Barcelona, and completing his studies in the great universities of Alcala, Salamanca and Paris. At each of these places he labored to convert the students to a religious life. Among his early converts at Paris were Peter Faber, Francis Xavier and Peter Laynez.

**His Three Monastic Vows.**

These all went through the "Spiritual Exercises" with him, and he made them fast three days and three nights at a time. In 1534, when Loyola was in his forty-third year, he and six of his young disciples at Paris took upon themselves the three monastic vows of poverty, chastity and obedience, along with a fourth vow to devote themselves to the service of Christ by going as missionaries wherever the Pope might send them. They were to complete their studies first, and the vow was to take effect in three years.

**Founding of the Society of Jesus.**

In 1540 Ignatius Loyola and his disciples submitted to Pope Paul III. the rules which they had adopted and the purpose to which they had devoted their lives. The Pope approved the new institution, which became incorporated under the name of the *Society of Jesus*. In 1541 Ignatius Loyola was elected the first General of the Order; but his constitution was not approved until the election of his successor, Peter Laynez, one of his earliest disciples and also a Spaniard. The Pope endowed the *Jesuits*, as the members of the new Order were called, with great privileges.

**Constitution of the Order.**

The Jesuits adopted a monarchical and oligarchical government; and the General of the Order, residing at Rome, knew each member's qualifications and work. The Order was divided into provinces; and the provincial, as well as the local superiors, were appointed by the General, who was aided in the government of the Order by assistants. The Provincials who governed the districts or provinces made reports to the General at regular intervals concerning the conduct and character of the members. In case the General proved unworthy of his trust, the assistants could convoke a general assembly of deputies to investigate charges, and even to go so far as to proceed to depose or expel the offender.

**Four Classes of the Order.**

The four classes into which this powerful religious association was divided were: 1. The Professed, who, after going through the other stages, had taken all vows; 2. The Coadjutors, who aided the Professed in teaching, preaching and the direction of souls; 3. The Scholastics, employed in study or teaching; 4. The Novices, who passed two years in spiritual exercises, such as prayer and meditation.

**Jesuit Asceticism.**

Strict obedience and perfect subordination in everything compatible with the laws and precepts of Christianity became the soul of this famous religious society. Its members were obliged to disconnect themselves with the rest of the world, their families and friends. Those intending to enter the Order were required to pass through a long period of severe probation, during which their talents and dispositions were carefully examined. Every member of the Order was required to be in the hands of his superior "like a staff in the hands of an old man," or "as clay in the hands of the potter." The subordination

was complete in all the gradations. Ignatius Loyola's military training caused him to constitute his society like soldiers in an army:

> "Theirs not to reason why,
> Theirs not to make reply,
> Theirs but to do and die."

Jesuit Zeal for Catholicism.

The chief object of the Society as conceived by its founder was such service to the Roman Catholic Church as would combat Protestantism with better weapons than the military forces of Charles V. A thoroughly organized and well-trained intellectual force should be instantly available for use where most needed. Persuasion and education should replace combat on the field of battle. Jesuit schools and colleges should educate the young, while Jesuit preachers and confessors informed their parents. Missionaries should extend the Church's sway at the fringes of Christian civilization.

Spread of Jesuitism.

The outward and immediate success of the Society of Jesus justified the hopes of its founder and the wisdom of his plans, as the Order soon spread over Catholic Europe, and many of its members were engaged in remote quarters of the globe in proclaiming the Gospel to the heathen. At the time of Ignatius Loyola's death, in 1556, the Jesuits had thirteen provinces, mainly in Spain, Portugal and Italy. Their influence was very great; as they took possession of the pulpits, schools and confessionals wherever they established themselves. They were the most accomplished and popular preachers and occupied anew the deserted churches. They supplanted other priests in the care of consciences; and, as they taught gratuitously and well, their schools were soon filled with the children of all classes.

Jesuit Check to Protestantism.

The efforts of the Jesuits to counteract the Reformation were prosecuted zealously and effectively, contributing immensely in Spain, Italy and Germany to arrest and prevent the spread of Protestantism. Distinguished for their learning, their zeal and their disinterestedness, devoting themselves in the pulpit and in the school with singleness of purpose to the fulfillment of the mission to which they had consecrated their lives, their influence was everywhere felt as a formidable adversary to the Protestant doctrine.

Jesuit Learning and Influence.

Instead of devoting their time to austerities, as did most older monastic orders, the Jesuits were required to cultivate all their intellectual faculties by the liberal pursuits of art, science and general literature. As they thus became the most accomplished instructors of youth, they acquired a controlling influence over the leading minds of Europe during the most impressible years of life—an influence clearly discernible in the later policy of the Austrian House of Hapsburg.

Jesuit World-wide Work.

The General of the Order had the most absolute authority in assigning every member the work for which he was adapted and qualified. While the urbanity of some made them influential figures as confessors at royal courts, the pious zeal of others found active employment in the most toilsome and self-denying missions among the savagely populated forests of America or in the crowded cities of China and Japan.

Jesuit Missions in America.

Jesuit missionaries converted many of the American Indians to Christianity, and were pioneers in the exploration of the Great Lakes of North America. In Paraguay Jesuit missionaries gained possession of the civil government of the country, converted and civilized the Indians, and rescued them from the system of slavery under which they had been reduced by the Spaniards and the Portuguese, at the same time teaching them agriculture, building and the arts of social life, and inducing them to exclude all other influences.

Missionary Work of St. Francis Xavier and Robert de Nobili in Asia.

The most illustrious of Jesuit missionaries was the celebrated St. Francis Xavier, who began his career in the East Indies in 1542, who preached in Goa, Ceylon, Malacca, Cochin-China and Japan, and who baptized hundreds of thousands in those distant lands, dying on his way to China, in 1551, after a missionary career of nine years. Another was Robert De Nobili, who went to India as a missionary in 1605, arriving at Goa, where St. Francis Xavier had landed sixty-three years before, and who made converts to Christianity by disguising himself as a Brahman, in this way demonstrating the Jesuit trait of ingenuity in promoting a great objective.

Protestant and Catholic Opposition to the Jesuits.

The Jesuits encountered great opposition and fierce abuse from other Catholic orders whom they supplanted, as well as from Protestants. They were accused of all manner of false beliefs and wicked actions. Some of these accusations seemed well founded, but others were merely the result of the jealousy of their rivals. The system of studies which they introduced into their schools took Europe by surprise, and involved them in a struggle with the Sorbonne of Paris and with the University of Coimbra, in Portugal, and that of Salamanca, in Spain. They were vehemently assailed, their doctrines and practices were bitterly denounced, and their Order was often suppressed even in Catholic countries and by Catholic rulers.

Macaulay's Remark.

Says Macaulay: "With what vehemence, with what policy, with what exact discipline, with what dauntless courage, with what self-denial, with what forgetfulness of the dearest private ties, with what intense and stubborn devotion to a single end, with what unscrupulous laxity and versatility in the choice of means, the Jesuits fought the battles of their Church, is written in every page of the annals of Europe during several generations. The history of the Order of

REGAL MAGNIFICENCE OF CARDINAL WOLSEY

From the Painting by S. A. Hart

Jesus is the history of the great Catholic reaction against Protestantism in the seventeenth century."

## SECTION VII.—SWEDEN'S LIBERATION AND REFORMATION IN SCANDINAVIA (A. D. 1523–1600).

Tyranny of Christian II. of Denmark and Its Result.

A COMPLETE political and religious revolution occurred in the three Scandinavian kingdoms in the sixteenth century. The tyrant Christian II. of Denmark—"the Nero of the North"—was the last king who reigned over the three Scandinavian kingdoms under the Union of Calmar. He irritated the Danish and Swedish nobility to such an extent by his severity and cruelty that insurrections broke out in Denmark and Sweden at the same time—a result which led to the dissolution of the Union of Calmar and the establishment of Lutheranism in the three Scandinavian kingdoms.

Gustavus Vasa of Sweden.

The valiant GUSTAVUS VASA, a brave youth, endowed with the wisdom and valor of his relatives, the Stures, inaugurated the political and ecclesiastical revolution in Sweden, and founded a dynasty of vigorous monarchs, who raised Sweden to the ascendency in the North. He was carried into Denmark as a hostage by Christian II.; but he soon escaped to Lübeck, where he was provided with money and encouraged with promises of the liberation of his native land.

Massacre of Stockholm.

In 1520 Christian II. caused ninety-four Swedish nobles to be perfidiously masacred at Stockholm. Among these massacred nobles was the heroic Gustavus Vasa's father. This atrocity excited universal horror in Sweden.

Gustavus Vasa in Dalecarlia.

In the same year the brave Gustavus Vasa landed on the shores of Sweden. In the midst of a thousand perils and adventures, he escaped the pursuing emissaries of Christian II., who were constantly at his heels, until he found aid and refuge among the rude inhabitants of the mining region in the North of Dalecarlia.

His Liberation of Sweden.

Gustavus Vasa aroused the Dalecarlians to an effort to recover the independence of Sweden, and with a force of hardy peasants he conquered Falun, repulsed the Danish troops and their allies and took Upsala. His fame and his call to freedom soon resounded through all lands and brought many warriors to his side. He obtained troops, money and artillery from the Lübeckers and forced the Danish garrison to retreat.

His Reign, A. D. 1523–1560.

After being elected King of Sweden by the Diet of Strengnas, he entered Stockholm in triumph, in June, 1523, thus restoring the independence of Sweden.

The Vasa Dynasty in Sweden.

The restored Kingdom of Sweden remained an elective monarchy for twenty years, but in 1544 the Swedish Diet declared the Swedish crown to be hereditary in the male line of the Vasa family. As the

possessions of the Swedish throne had been so dilapidated by neglect as to be inadequate to support the expenditure, the new royal dignity could be maintained with honor only by augmenting the royal revenue, and for this the Reformation afforded a welcome opportunity.

Lutheranism Established in Sweden.

The Swedish people, instructed in the Lutheran doctrines by the brothers Olaus and Laurentius Petri, gladly embraced the Lutheran faith; and, as the clergy in Sweden had sided with the Danes during the war for Swedish independence, the Swedish Diet placed the possessions of the clergy at Gustavus Vasa's disposal, in 1527. Thus supported by the Diet's resolution, the new Swedish king gradually introduced Lutheranism into his kingdom, and confiscated most of the possessions of the Roman Church in Sweden for the benefit of the Swedish crown. As the Swedish nobility were enriched by this proceeding they supported the king in his policy. After a long resistance, the Swedish bishops yielded to the new system, remained as Estates of the kingdom and heads of the Church, but were dependent upon their king and held in check by the consistories.

Gustavus Vasa and His Successors.

Gustavus Vasa, who sought to make Sweden prosperous by good and wise laws and by encouraging trade and industry, died in 1560, after a reign of thirty-seven years; and the dynasty which he founded occupied the throne of Sweden for almost three centuries, A. D. 1523–1818. Evil times came upon Sweden during the reigns of his sons, who successively occupied the Swedish throne.

Erik XIV., A. D. 1560–1568.

Erik XIV., the first son and successor of Gustavus Vasa, was of so passionate a disposition that he finally became hopelessly insane; and while in that condition he murdered several of the Sture family with his own hand, and caused all the Swedish nobles to tremble in fear of a similar fate. His brothers placed him in confinement, and finally poisoned him in 1568.

His Insanity.

John III., A. D. 1568–1592.

John III., another son of Gustavus Vasa, then became King of Sweden. This monarch was a weak-minded sovereign of vacillating disposition. Being led astray by his wife, who was a rigid Catholic and a Polish princess, and by a Jesuit who lived secretly at Stockholm as an ambassador, John III. endeavored to reëstablish the Catholic religion in Sweden, and consented that his son Sigismund, who was to be King of Sweden and Poland, should be educated as a Catholic. This scheme failed, because of the resistance of the Swedish people to the Catholic ceremonies. John III. himself afterward repented of his project, when his second wife exerted herself in favor of Lutheranism.

His Pro-Catholic Project.

Sigismund, A. D., 1592–1599.

John III. died in 1592; and his son Sigismund, who was King Sigismund III. of Poland, became King of Sweden. Sigismund's attachment to the Roman Catholic Church proved very detrimental

to his reign in Sweden. He stubbornly refused to comply with the resolution of the Swedish Diet that the Evangelical Lutheran Church should be the state-religion of Sweden and alone tolerated in that kingdom. Thereupon the Diet appointed his uncle Charles, Duke of Sudermania, also a son of Gustavus Vasa, to administer the government of Sweden as regent, A. D. 1598.

His Pro-Catholic Attitude.

Sigismund endeavored vainly to maintain his right to the crown of Sweden by force of arms. He was defeated by his uncle; whereupon the Swedish Diet demanded that he either renounce Rome and govern Sweden in person or send his son to Sweden so that the prince might be educated in the Lutheran religion. As Sigismund refused to comply with this demand he was deposed in 1599; whereupon his uncle, the Duke of Sudermania, was made King of Sweden with the title of CHARLES IX.; and a new law of succession secured the Swedish crown to his family.

His Resistance and Deposition.

Charles IX., A. D. 1599–1611.

In the meantime, while Lutheranism was thus triumphant in Sweden, the Lutheran Church was also established in Denmark. The tyrant CHRISTIAN II., who was at first favorable to the Reformation, was deposed by the Danish Diet in 1523, the same year in which Gustavus Vasa became King of Sweden; whereupon his uncle Frederick, Duke of Holstein, became King FREDERICK I. of Denmark. Frederick I., who was acknowledged as king by the Danish nobility and people, supported the Lutheran doctrines, in order to strengthen himself against his dethroned rival.

Deposition of Christian II. in Denmark.

Frederick I. and Lutheranism.

The deposed Christian II. then became a firm adherent of the Roman Church, in order to gain the support of the Pope and of the Emperor Charles V. in his efforts to recover possession of the crowns of Denmark and Sweden. In the meantime, while Frederick I., at the Diet of Odensee, admitted Protestants in Denmark to equal civil rights with Catholics, and made the Danish Church independent of the Pope, Christian II. made an attack upon Denmark from Norway; but he was taken prisoner, and was incarcerated in a gloomy tower for sixteen years with a Norwegian dwarf as his only companion.

Revolt and Imprisonment of the Deposed Christian II.

Frederick I. died in 1534, after a reign of ten years, and was succeeded on the Danish throne by his son CHRISTIAN III., during whose reign the Lutheran Church was fully established in Denmark. Most of the possessions of the Roman clergy in Denmark were confiscated, and became the property of the Danish crown and nobility; and the Danish bishops, whose titles were retained, became utterly dependent upon their government. Lutheranism was quietly established in Norway by the peasantry, but the Protestant party in Iceland fell with the sword in their hands. The Danish nobility, like the Swedish, acquired great wealth, power and privileges by the Reformation.

Christian III., A. D. 1534–1559.

Lutheranism in Denmark and Norway.

Frederick II., A. D. 1559–1588.

Christian III. of Denmark and Norway died in 1559, and was succeeded by his son FREDERICK II., who reduced the free people of the Republic of Ditmarsen under the dominion of Denmark, after they had successfully resisted the Danes for several centuries. Denmark finally acknowledged Sweden's independence by the Peace of Stettin, in 1570, which closed the Northern Seven Years' War, but left the seven southern provinces of Sweden in the possession of the King of Denmark. The reign of Frederick II. was prosperous, and was celebrated for the progress of art and science, which were now cultivated in Denmark for the first time. The great astronomer, Tycho Brahe, founded an observatory at Uranienborg. Frederick II. died in 1588, and was succeeded on the throne of Denmark and Norway by his son CHRISTIAN IV., who reigned sixty years.

Peace of Stettin.

Art and Science.

Christian IV., A. D. 1588–1648.

## SECTION VIII.—HENRY VIII. AND THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND (A. D. 1509–1553).

Henry VIII., A. D. 1509–1547.

THERE was great joy in England when, upon the death of Henry VII. in 1509, his son HENRY VIII. ascended the English throne; as his father had incurred the hatred of the English people by his jealousy, his severity and his avarice. The new king was only eighteen years of age, but he gave the most promising hopes of making a good sovereign and of having a happy and glorious reign. The contending claims of the rival Houses of York and Lancaster were united in his person, so that he received the cordial and united support of both. His father had left him an enormous treasury, and England was free from foreign and civil wars. In short, no other King of England ever began to reign under circumstances more peculiarly favorable than Henry VIII.

His Happy Accession

His Character.

The young king possessed the qualities essential to win popularity; as he was handsome, carefully educated and highly accomplished, besides being energetic and of a frank and hearty disposition. He was likewise fond of chivalrous amusements and endowed with great powers of mind, while being also a hearty friend of the New Learning and inspired with a sincere desire to rule with justice. But his disposition changed much as he advanced in age; as his naturally violent and impulsive temper, which he was unable to bring under control, became malignant and unrelenting with opposition; and he gradually became fiercer and more tyrannical.

His Marriage with Catharine of Aragon.

A few weeks after his accession Henry VIII. celebrated his marriage with the Princess Catharine of Aragon, and the two were crowned together as King and Queen of England, June 24, 1509. One of the

young king's first official acts was to bring Empson and Dudley, the hated lawyers of Henry VII., to the scaffold on a charge of treason—a proceeding designed to satisfy popular clamor. Henry VIII. was as prodigal as his father had been penurious; and the great fortune which he inherited was squandered in a few years in tournaments and other expensive entertainments, to the great grief of his careful counselor, Fox, Bishop of Winchester.

**His Prodigality.**

The young king was entirely under the influence of his Prime Minister, the Earl of Surrey, who took advantage of his master's naturally lavish disposition to encourage him in his prodigality, so that he might become negligent of public business and wholly willing to trust the affairs of state entirely to his Ministers. To counteract the evil influence of the Earl of Surrey and to restrain the young king's follies, Bishop Fox of Winchester introduced at court Thomas Wolsey, who had already displayed the qualities of shrewdness and dexterity.

**The Earl of Surrey.**

**Thomas Wolsey.**

Wolsey was the son of a butcher at Ipswich. The great talents and the love of learning which he exhibited in his childhood caused him to be sent to the University of Oxford, where he took his first degree at so early an age as to be called the "boy bachelor." After having occupied various stations with great reputation, he finally became chaplain to Henry VII. He won the favor of Henry VII. by the surprising quickness and adroitness with which he performed a mission from that monarch to the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany, while that sovereign was at Brussels, going and returning in three days.

**His Abilities and Promotion.**

By the art of flattery, Wolsey soon acquired an unbounded influence over King Henry VIII.; but he made a different use of that influence from what Bishop Fox had intended, as he encouraged the young king's follies in order to promote his own advancement. He was soon made Archbishop of York and also Chancellor. Wolsey affected to regard Henry VIII. as the wisest of mortals, promoted his amusements and participated in them with the gayety of youth. By thus making himself agreeable as well as useful, Wolsey ruled one of the most capricious and passionate of sovereigns with absolute sway for ten years, and for a time acted a more conspicuous part in public affairs than his master.

**His Influence over Henry VIII.**

The ambition of Henry VIII. for military glory involved England in a series of costly and unprofitable wars. He joined the League of Cambray against Venice. He also joined Ferdinand of Spain, the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany and Pope Julius II. in the Holy League against Louis XII. of France, reviving the almost forgotten claims of the Plantagenets to the western provinces of that kingdom. In 1512 he sent an expedition to conquer Guienne; but his crafty

**English Invasion of France.**

father-in-law, King Ferdinand of Spain, contrived to reap all the benefits of the enterprise by using the English forces to conquer the Kingdom of Navarre for himself, instead of Guienne for the English king.

**Battle of the Spurs.**

In 1513 Henry VIII. invaded France by way of Calais with an army of twenty thousand men, besieged Terouenne and defeated the French at Guinegate, in an engagement called the *Battle of the Spurs*, because of the ignominious flight of the French cavalry at the first onset, August 16, 1513. In this action the Emperor Maximilian I. served King Henry VIII. as a private soldier; and the Chevalier Bayard, the famous French knight, was among the prisoners taken by the English. Terouenne immediately capitulated; and Tournay surrendered several weeks later, September 9, 1513.

**Scottish Invasion of England.**

King James IV. of Scotland, the brother-in-law of Henry VIII., was the ally of Louis XII. of France. The chivalrous King of Scots invaded England with a large army and ravaged Northumberland; but he was defeated and killed by the English army under the Earl of Surrey at Flodden Field, near the Cheviot Hills, ten thousand gallant Scottish knights being among the slain, September 9, 1513, the very day of the capture of Tournay by Henry VIII. The battle of Flodden Field is celebrated in the old ballads and finely described by Sir Walter Scott in his poem of Marmion.

**Battle of Flodden Field.**

**Peace with Scotland.**

Scotland was plunged into deep mourning by the loss of her king and the flower of her nobility; but the triumphant Henry VIII. generously granted the request of his sister Margaret, the widow of James IV., who acted as regent for her infant son, James V.; and peace was made between England and Scotland.

**Peace with France.**

As Henry VIII. was deserted by his ally and father-in-law, Ferdinand of Spain, he made peace with Louis XII. of France in 1514. The treaty was sealed by the aged French king's marriage with the Princess Mary, the eldest sister of Henry VIII. Louis XII. died a few months later, January 1, 1515; and his young widowed queen married her old lover, Charles Francis Brandon, Duke of Suffolk, a great favorite of her royal brother and the most accomplished English nobleman of his time.

**Wolsey Made a Cardinal.**

Observing the great influence which Wolsey exerted over King Henry VIII., Pope Leo X. desired to engage him in his interest, and with this object in view made him a cardinal in 1518, also appointing him to the dignity of papal legate in England, thus giving him a power in that kingdom equal to that of the Pope himself. Besides being Archbishop of York, Wolsey was allowed to hold the bishoprics of Tournay, Lincoln and Winchester "in plurality," thus greatly augmenting his power and influence.

His State and Dignity.

No other churchman ever equaled Cardinal Wolsey in state and dignity. His retinue consisted of eight hundred servants, many of whom were knights and gentlemen; and young nobles served as his pages. He was the first clergyman in England that wore silk and gold, not only on his dress, but also on the saddles and the trappings of his horses. The tallest and handsomest priests were selected to carry the badges of his various offices before him. All this ostentation excited the merriment of the English people, instead of awing them.

Wolsey as Chancellor.

For twenty years Cardinal Wolsey stood at the head of Church and State, and no abler Chancellor ever administered justice in England. He was the most powerful, if not the ablest, subject that England ever had. His decisions were so prompt and so just that the Court of Chancery became the certain refuge of the oppressed—quite the contrary from its later character.

His Versatility of Genius.

Wolsey's genius was unequaled for breadth or versatility. He could play the courtier and divert the idle king's pleasure-loving hours with constant sallies of wit and mirth, or he could act the statesman and guide the most intricate affairs of state with consummate skill. He would sometimes leave the scenes of pomp and splendor, and devote himself with simplicity and meekness to the ordinary duties of the parish priest; visiting the sick and the dying, giving alms to the poor and needy, and ministering in numberless ways to the temporal and spiritual wants of his grateful people. Wolsey's inordinate ambition led him to aspire to the Papacy; and he sacrificed his country's interests and made his king his perpetual dupe, in order to procure the favor of foreign princes by whose patronage he hoped to obtain that dignity.

His Patronage of the New Learning.

Although Cardinal Wolsey was really the mainspring of all that was done in England, he contrived to make every act of government appear to proceed directly from his sovereign, whom he flattered by affecting the most humble submission to the royal will. Like Henry VIII. himself, Wolsey was a friend of the New Learning—a most munificent patron of learned men. He founded the first professorship of Greek in England. He established a school at Ipswich and Christ Church College at Oxford. The latter institution still attests his taste and liberality in building. His household almost equaled the king's in number and magnificence, and knights and barons served at his table. His two mansions—the one at Hampton Court and the other at Whitehall—were so splendid that they became royal palaces after his fall from power.

Emperor Charles V.

As we have seen, Henry VIII., Francis I. of France and Charles I. of Spain were candidates for the imperial throne of Germany after the death of the Emperor Maximilian I., in 1519; and Charles was

successful, being chosen by the German Electors, thus becoming the Emperor Charles V. and the greatest and most powerful monarch of his time.

**Alliance of Henry VIII. with Charles V.**

As we have already noticed, both Francis I. of France and the Emperor Charles V. desired to secure the alliance of Henry VIII. A royal interview was arranged between the Kings of England and France to take place near Calais; but before the appointed time the Emperor visited Henry VIII. in England, and won the favor of the English king by flattering Cardinal Wolsey with hopes of being elected Pope at the next vacancy, and by his frank and genial courtesies. On the day of the Emperor's departure Henry VIII. and all his courtiers sailed for Calais to meet the French king.

**Field of the Cloth of Gold.**

The meeting between Henry VIII. and Francis I. took place in a plain near Calais, in June, 1520, and was called the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*, from the magnificence of the display, many of the tents being of silk and cloth of gold. The two thousand eight hundred tents were inadequate to accommodate the vast multitudes that flocked to this splendid festival, and many ladies and gentlemen of rank were glad to obtain lodging in barns and to sleep upon hay and straw.

**Henry VIII., Charles V. and Wolsey.**

The meeting lasted a fortnight; and the two kings displayed their knightly skill in tilts and tournaments, while their Ministers talked business, after which they parted with profuse assurances of friendship, and Henry VIII. proceeded to visit the Emperor Charles V. at Gravelines, where he was won over more completely to the imperial side. Wolsey received the revenues of two Spanish bishoprics, in earnest of his greater expectations; but, in spite of the Emperor's promises, his tutor Adrian was made Pope upon the death of Leo X.; and upon the death of Adrian VI., after a short reign, Clement VII., an Italian prince, was invested with the papal tiara by the favor of His Imperial Majesty.

**Alliance of Henry VIII. with Francis I.**

Though Henry VIII. was the ally of Charles V. in the Emperor's first war with the King of France, the captivity of Francis I. in 1525 in consequence of his disastrous defeat in the battle of Pavia opened the English king's eyes to the Emperor's ambition, and Henry VIII. made an alliance with France in order to secure the release of Francis I. and to prevent the seizure of any part of the French territory by Charles V.

**Wolsey's Growing Unpopularity.**

Cardinal Wolsey was making himself obnoxious to the English people by his diplomacy. He was generally considered the author of the arbitrary measures by which the king sought to extort money from his subjects in 1525, which almost produced rebellion. Wolsey became more bitterly hated by the English people, although he only carried out the king's instructions; but Henry VIII. became popular because

of the relinquishment of his design—a measure which he was unable to avoid.

His Ambition and Power.

Wolsey's disappointments in the last two papal elections aroused his indignation, and the ambitious cardinal now became convinced of the insincerity of the Emperor's promises; and thenceforth England's foreign policy underwent a change. Wolsey's disappointment caused the ambitious Minister to promote his country's true interests by seeking to check the power of Spain. Wolsey was all powerful at home. His nomination as papal legate was confirmed by both Popes Adrian VI. and Clement VII.; and he held in his hands the whole papal power in England, using that power to suit his own purposes.

Henry VIII. and His Latin Book against the Reformation.

In 1521 Henry VIII. wrote a Latin volume against Luther and the Reformation; and Pope Leo X. conferred upon the royal author the title of *Defender of the Faith*, and wrote him a letter praising his wisdom, learning, zeal, charity, gravity, gentleness and meekness—most of which qualities the king did not possess. But a change was soon to take place in the relations between Henry VIII. and the Head of the Church—a change fraught with the most momentous consequences for England, as we shall presently see.

Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn.

About this time Henry VIII. became captivated by the charms of Anne Boleyn, a beautiful young lady then living at his court. She had been educated at the French court, and had returned to England with her English beauty adorned by French grace and vivacity. Seeking for a pretext upon which he could obtain a divorce from his first wife, Catharine of Aragon, that he might marry Anne Boleyn, he affected great doubts about the legality of his marriage with Catharine because she had previously been married to his brother Arthur. Such marriages are forbidden by the Levitical law and by a canon of the Roman Church, but a special dispensation had been obtained from Pope Alexander VI. sanctioning Henry's marriage with his brother's widow.

Henry's Scruples as to His First Marriage.

Henry VIII. seems to have been sincere in his doubts about the legality of his marriage with Catharine of Aragon. He coupled these conscientious scruples with his "despair of having male issue by Catharine, to inherit the realm." All the sons born of this marriage had died in their infancy; and only a sickly daughter, the Princess Mary, survived. The king in his superstition considered the premature deaths of his sons a sure mark of Divine wrath. Wolsey craftily aggravated these fears, if he did not inspire them; as the ambitious cardinal hated the Spanish party, of which Catharine of Aragon was the head, and coveted the glory of arranging a new marriage for his king with a French princess. But Henry VIII. made his own choice, without his Minister's aid, or even without the Pope's permission, by

deciding to marry Anne Boleyn after obtaining a divorce from Catharine of Aragon.

Dilemma of Pope Clement VII.

Another papal dispensation was required for the king's divorce from his first wife before he could form a new marriage, and Cardinal Wolsey was commissioned to secure this divorce. Pope Clement VII. was in a serious dilemma. If he sanctioned the English king's divorce from his Spanish wife he would offend the Emperor Charles V., who was her nephew; and the Netherlands would be almost certain to become Protestant, along with Germany. If he forbade the divorce both England and France might renounce the Roman Church, as these countries were full of secret or open adherents of the Reformation. Under these circumstances the Pope temporized.

Wolsey's Perplexity.

Cardinal Wolsey was as much perplexed as to the proper course to pursue as was the Pope. If he granted the king's divorce on his own responsibility he would offend the Pope. If he refused he would incur the king's wrath, and thus Wolsey likewise temporized. For two weary years the impatient Henry VIII. was kept in suspense, and his impatience was aggravated by his violent passion for Anne Boleyn.

Trial Court of Cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio.

At length, in 1528, Pope Clement VII. sent Cardinal Campeggio, an Italian prelate, to England to decide in concert with Cardinal Wolsey the validity of the king's first marriage. Campeggio endeavored to settle the matter by private negotiation, first seeking to persuade the king to abandon his thoughts of a divorce, and then trying to induce Catharine to consent to the divorce and retire to a nunnery, but failing in both endeavors. After another year of delays, Cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio proceeded to a trial of the cause in 1529; but they appeared unwilling to come to a decision. The king's patience was almost exhausted, and the courtiers now perceived that the king's favor for Wolsey was waning.

Queen Catharine's Plea.

The court organized by Cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio in 1529 to try the case of the king's first marriage had sat for two months without arriving at any result. Catharine of Aragon had all along appealed to her nephew, the Emperor Charles V., for protection. She now appeared before this court with her royal husband, and threw herself on her knees before him, addressing him an affecting and affectionate appeal not to brand her with the crime of incest and their daughter Mary as an illegitimate child, and imploring him to remember the fidelity with which she had observed her marriage vows for twenty years. She then made a solemn appeal to Pope Clement VII., after which she left the court and refused to enter it again.

Action of Pope Clement VII.

On July 23, 1529, Cardinal Campeggio suddenly adjourned the court until October following; and a few days afterwards orders came from Pope Clement VII. transferring the case to Rome, and citing

Henry VIII. and his queen to appear there and plead their respective causes at the papal bar. The King of England was now convinced that the Pope had all along been trifling with him and that he was willing to sacrifice him to please the Emperor Charles V.

**Cardinal Wolsey's Disgrace.**

This disposition of the case sealed the fate of Cardinal Wolsey, and made a rupture between Henry VIII. and the Pope inevitable. The king turned furiously upon Wolsey, who was in no way responsible for the Pope's action. It was the king's habit to make his Ministers responsible for the fate of the measures entrusted to them, but Henry VIII. proceeded cautiously. Wolsey's influence with his king was a thing of the past. Anne Boleyn, who suspected that the great cardinal opposed her marriage with the king, joined his enemies, of which his pride and arrogance had created many.

**His Fall.**

Wolsey's enemies proceeded with such secrecy that his first knowledge of their action was an indictment brought against him with the king's consent, but the great cardinal had long dreaded such an event as the result of a failure of the divorce proceedings. The Great Seal was taken from him and intrusted to Sir Thomas More. Wolsey, deprived of all his temporal honors and offices, was banished from court and ordered to retire to his archbishopric of York. The king also seized the fallen Minister's palace of York Place, afterward called Whitehall, along with his gorgeous plate and furniture, his clothes and a tomb which he had prepared for himself at Windsor. The unfortunate Minister was impeached on forty-four charges, and sentenced to imprisonment along with forfeiture of lands and goods.

**His Partial Restoration and Second Disgrace.**

But the king's resentment soon subsided; and Wolsey received a royal pardon, and a portion of his revenues were restored to him; but he was required to reside at York, the archbishopric of which was the only dignity that he was allowed to retain. Adversity did not cure the disgraced Minister of his love of magnificence, thus drawing on him again the king's displeasure. In 1530 his enemies caused him to be arrested on a charge of high treason, in setting up a foreign court in the kingdom; and he was arrested at York by the Earl of Northumberland.

**His Sad End.**

In charge of Master Kingston, the Constable of the Tower, Wolsey started on his last journey to London; but on the way he was seized with a violent fever, brought on by anxiety and grief at his fall. Upon arriving at Leicester Abbey, on the third day of the journey, Saturday night, November 26, 1530, Wolsey was conscious that his end was approaching, and he said to the abbot, who came to the gate to give him a kindly welcome: "My father, I am come hither to leave my bones among you." He was lifted from his mule and was carried to his bed, which he never left alive. He died three days later,

November 29, 1530; after addressing the Constable of the Tower in these ever memorable and affecting words: "Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the king, He would not have given me over in my gray hairs."

**Commentary Thereon.**

Such was the sad end of the once great and all-powerful Cardinal Wolsey —a striking illustration of the vanity of earthly glory. Henry VIII., whose ingratitude was the basest of his many faults, could crush long-tried and faithful servants with as little feeling as if he were treading upon the meanest reptile. The genius of Shakespeare has crystallized Wolsey's last words as though he were addressing the only friend who did not desert him, Sir Thomas Cromwell, in these words:

> "O Cromwell, Cromwell,
> Had I but served my God with half the zeal
> I served my king, He would not in mine age
> Have left me naked to mine enemies."

**Henry VIII. and Thomas Cranmer.**

In the meantime King Henry VIII. was collecting the opinions of learned men on the subject of his divorce; but the clergy made one delay after another, and two more years passed without resulting in any progress. Just before Wolsey's disgrace and fall, two of the king's servants, Gardiner and Fox, accidentally fell in company with Thomas Cranmer, a fellow of Jesus College at Cambridge, with whom they conversed on the subject of the king's divorce. Cranmer at first refrained from expressing any opinion; but, when pressed, said that he would waste no time in negotiating with the Pope, but would propose to the most learned men in Europe this plain question: "Can a man marry his brother's widow?" This hint so impressed the two doctors that they reported it to the king, who said bluntly, with an oath: "Cranmer has got the right sow by the ear." Henry VIII. at once took Cranmer into his service and engaged him to write a book in favor of the divorce.

**The Divorce Question.**

Cranmer's proposition to submit the question of the king's divorce to all the universities of Europe suggested to Henry VIII. a way toward the solution of the vexed question. If the universities answered that a man might marry his brother's widow, the king's conscience would be relieved; if their advice was for divorce, the Pope would be unable to resist their decision. The Pope threatened to excommunicate Henry VIII. in case he divorced Catharine of Aragon and married Anne Boleyn; but the great universities of Europe mainly decided in the English king's favor. In the meantime the course of events in England, along with the bold advice of Sir Thomas Cromwell, his new Secretary of State, led Henry VIII. to more decisive action.

Archbishop Cranmer and the King's Divorce.

In 1533 Cranmer was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and he at once proceeded to try the question of divorce. A court was convened; and, after a fortnight passed in hearing arguments, sentence of divorce was pronounced, declaring that the marriage was not valid from the beginning, and that Mary, the daughter of Henry VIII. and Catharine of Aragon, was illegitimate, and therefore not an heir to the English crown. The poor queen retired to Ampthill, and Henry VIII. was publicly married to Anne Boleyn. The Princess Elizabeth was born in 1533—an event celebrated with splendor and rejoicing.

His Marriage with Anne Boleyn.

Action of Pope Clement VII.

The intelligence of the court's sentence created commotion at Rome. Pope Clement VII. was at first doubtful as to what action he should take; but he at length issued an angry edict, declaring the king's marriage with Catharine of Aragon to be valid. The divorced queen, who had resisted to the utmost the disgrace and injustice heaped upon her, died in 1536, honored for her virtues and her piety.

Sir Thomas Cromwell.

The Pope soon perceived the great political error which he had committed. Sir Thomas Cromwell, the new Secretary of State, who had served Cardinal Wolsey with such fidelity, was a staunch friend of the Reformation; and Henry VIII. chose him because of his abilities and his bold, decisive character, as the king needed such an ally in the contest which his divorce and second marriage involved him with the Pope. Perceiving clearly that nothing was to be hoped for from the Pope, Cromwell advised King Henry VIII. to declare himself Head of the Church in England; and the king promptly acted on this advice.

The English Clergy and the Statute of Præmunire.

The English bishops and higher clergy prepared to resist the king's action; but Henry VIII. determined to punish them for violation of the Statute of Præmunire, passed in the time of Edward III. and Wycliffe, which forbade any English subject to yield supreme obedience to a foreign potentate, and this applied to the Pope. Most of the clergy had been guilty of the violation of that statute by their submission to the papal legate's court in England—the crime for which Wolsey had been condemned.

Henry VIII. as Head of the Church of England.

The English clergy only obtained pardon by paying a fine of one hundred and eighteen thousand eight hundred and forty pounds sterling, and by acknowledging that the king was the "Protector and Supreme Head of the Church and clergy of England"—an acknowledgment which they qualified by the clause "in so far as is permitted by the laws of Christ." By this measure Henry VIII. struck a decisive blow at the connection between the English Church and the Pope, and laid the foundation of the complete independence of that Church.

The English king next proceeded to annul the Pope's claim to tribute and obedience from England, and to put a stop to the pay-

His Anti-papal Measures.

ment of the large sums of money which the Pope annually drew from England; and Parliament passed a statute forbidding any appeals from English subjects to the Pope or to any person outside the realm. Monasteries and nunneries in England were subjected to inspection and control by the king's officers. Bishops were to be appointed by the clergy attached to their cathedrals, upon receiving letters of permission from the king.

Sir Thomas More's Resignation.

These measures led to the resignation of the Chancellor, Sir Thomas More, one of the best of Englishmen and a devoted Roman Catholic. The king received his resignation with regret, as he sincerely esteemed him; but proceeded in his efforts. Finally, in 1534, the English Parliament passed the *Act of Supremacy*, by which the King of England was declared the Supreme Head of the Church of England, thus making the English Church thoroughly independent of the Pope. The Act of Supremacy made it high treason for any English subject to deny that the King of England was "the Supreme Head on earth of the Church of England."

Act of Supremacy.

Progress of the English Reformation.

Though the English Reformation was immediately brought about by personal and selfish motives, this decisive movement had a far deeper origin, and had been precipitated by the discussions concerning the king's marriage. The Pope's irresolution shook the faith of many who gladly would have considered him infallible; and the question was propounded: "If Pope Clement *will* not decide when England's welfare is at stake, where is his justice? If he *can* not, where is his infallibility?" In spite of the Statute of Heretics, now rigorously executed, the hearts of the common people of England were more and more alienated from obedience to the Roman See.

Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher.

A number of English Roman Catholics refused to acknowledge the king's ecclesiastical supremacy, and among these were Sir Thomas More and Fisher, Bishop of Rochester. They thus made themselves guilty of high treason. Neither would they recognize the exclusion of the Princess Mary as her father's successor. Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher were sent as prisoners to the Tower. A little later the prophecies of a Kentish nun produced a Catholic insurrection in England, but this outbreak was soon quelled and the nun's imposture was exposed. The monks of the Charter House, in London—a brotherhood famous in that corrupt age for the purity and beneficence of their lives—were many of them executed on the scaffold, while others died of fever and starvation in loathsome prisons.

Execution of Charter House Monks.

Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher Beheaded.

Determined to strike a final and decisive blow at the papal party in England, Henry VIII. caused Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher to be tried, condemned and beheaded for high treason, in 1535. The good bishop mounted the scaffold with a copy of the New Testament

in his hand, and as he knelt to lay his head upon the block he read the words: "This is life eternal to know Thee, the only true God."

More's Life and Character

England lost one of the most admirable men of his time in the execution of Sir Thomas More, who was distinguished for his brilliant genius, his wonderful learning, his ardent piety and the sweetness of his domestic life. He had been a lifelong reformer; but he had labored to reform the Church by remaining in it, and not to accomplish such reformation by separating from the old organization. He sincerely believed the Pope to be the Head of the Christian Church by Divine appointment, and for that reason he had resigned the office of Chancellor when Henry VIII. assumed the supremacy of the English Church. It is said that the Emperor Charles V. remarked, upon hearing of More's execution: "I would rather have lost the best city in my dominions than so worthy a counselor."

His Utopia.

Sir Thomas More was the author of a romance, entitled *Utopia*, meaning *Nowhere*, in which he satirizes the faults and oppressions of his own age and country, and depicts a perfect society and ideal commonwealth, which an imaginary companion of Amerigo Vespucci, deserted on the American continent, found somewhere in the wilds. This ideal place had wide and cleanly streets, comfortable houses, a system of public schools in which every child received a good education, perfect religious toleration and universal suffrage, though with a family and not an individual ballot; and the sole object of the government was the welfare of the entire people, and not the pleasure of the king.

Quarrel of Henry VIII. with Pope Paul III.

Bishop Fisher had been made a cardinal by the Pope during his imprisonment; and Pope Paul III., upon hearing of his execution, excommunicated King Henry VIII., declared him deposed from his throne and laid England under an interdict. The king retaliated by causing those of his subjects who had been chiefly instrumental in procuring the excommunication and interdict to be arrested, tried and beheaded for high treason. It became increasingly dangerous to express religious opinions even in private.

The English Church under Henry VIII.

King Henry VIII. was now the only Pope legally recognized in England, and all ecclesiastical as well as civil power was vested in him. He dictated the sermons of the pulpit, as well as the enactments of Parliament. He controlled the ecclesiastical as well as the civil courts. He declared what was truth and what was heresy. He appointed and removed bishops and archbishops at his pleasure. The vast revenues that had flowed so steadily from England to the Vatican for centuries were now poured into his coffers. No priest could preach in England without a royal license, and no license was issued without the Oath of Supremacy. Every English priest was compelled to declare to his assembled parish their absolution from allegiance to the

Pope, and their duty of obedience to their king as Head of the Church of England.

Peaceful Character of the English Reformation.

Thus the silent and bewildered English people, constrained by respect for law on the one hand and by reverence for religion on the other, were carried peacefully through the first and most critical crisis of a momentous religious revolution. In other countries the Reformation advanced only through a sea of blood. The peace and order that characterized the first stages of the Reformation in England were vastly due to the overshadowing character of the throne and the iron will of the despot who occupied it.

Subserviency of Parliament.

The English Parliament removed the last vestige of a limitation to the royal authority by enacting that royal proclamations should have the force of statutes. It is said that if, during the sessions of Parliament, the king's name were only mentioned in his absence, the members would rise and bow before the vacant throne. Upon one occasion, when the House of Commons did not pass a law granting a supply as speedily as Henry VIII. desired, the king sent for Edward Montague, one of the most influential members of that branch of Parliament, who, when introduced to His Majesty, was greeted with these words: "Ho! man! will they not pass my bill?" Then laying one of his hands on Montague's head, as the subservient member of the Commons was on his knees before him, the tyrannical king exclaimed: "Get my bill passed by to-morrow, or else to-morrow this head of yours shall be off!" The bill was passed within the appointed time.

Henry VIII. and Edward Montague.

The Reform and Catholic Parties.

Thus far King Henry VIII. had been obliged by his own necessities in his struggle with the Pope to move forward with the English Reformers. He was vastly indebted to the Reformation for the success of his divorce proceedings, but the Reformation owed him very little. Though Archbishop Cranmer and Sir Thomas Cromwell had not yet openly renounced the Catholic doctrines, they sought steadily to lead the king into measures favorable to the Reformers; while the Duke of Norfolk and the other leaders of the Catholic party in England endeavored to encourage the king's devotion to the Roman faith and to prevent a renunciation of the Catholic doctrines by the English Church, but they were struggling against the logic of events.

Tyndale's Bible.

The Bible had been made accessible to the English people, and was doing its work among them rapidly and decisively. William Tyndale had translated the Scriptures into English in 1526, and this translation was published in the Netherlands. Its circulation was forbidden in England under severe penalties; but there was a great demand for it, and it was read, in spite of the stringent laws against it. It was every day becoming more apparent that the English people were weakening in their belief in the cardinal doctrine of the Roman Catholic

Transubstantiation.

CRANMER AT THE TRAITORS' GATE

From the Painting by F. Goodall

Church—the doctrine of transubstantiation; while the doctrine of justification by faith was becoming stronger.

**Religious Persecution in England.**

The fires of persecution were again lighted in England, and Protestants died the deaths of martyrs at the stake. Henry VIII. relentlessly punished both Catholics and Lutherans, the former for upholding the Pope's supremacy against the king's in England, and the latter for denying the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church. He still retained his early detestation of Luther and his doctrines.

**Archbishop Cranmer and the Bible.**

But the English Reformers were proceeding forward beyond the point which Luther had reached, and were establishing the doctrines of their Church far in advance of his. Archbishop Cranmer, sensible of the influence of the Scriptures upon their readers, caused both houses of the convocation to pass a resolution in 1536 requesting the king to appoint learned men to translate the Scriptures for circulation among the English people. The Primate was warmly supported in this enterprise by Queen Anne and by Sir Thomas Cromwell; and the result was that the king sanctioned William Tyndale's translation of the Bible, as revised by Miles Coverdale in 1535, and supposed to have been printed at Zurich, in Switzerland. This result, which was accomplished by Cranmer in 1536, was an immense gain for the English Reformers.

**Tyndale's and Coverdale's Versions.**

**Church Services in the English Language.**

Archbishop Cranmer very much desired that the public service of the Church should be in English instead of Latin, but he was very well aware that Henry VIII. would violently oppose such an innovation. He therefore considered it the best policy to lead to the desired change by degrees; and he gradually obtained the king's permission to have the Decalogue, the Lord's Prayer and the new Church creed read in English in the churches, and to be taught in every school and family. A copy of the English Bible, as translated by William Tyndale and Miles Coverdale, was ordered to be chained to the pillar or desk of every church in England, and to be open to the reading of all. In 1539 Archbishop Cranmer made a new English translation of the Bible.

**Public Interest.**

When these Bibles appeared they were thankfully received by the English people, who flocked to the churches, where they could hear the holy book read; and a great number learned to read for the sole purpose of perusing the sacred volume. The great increase in the number of books, through the invention of the art of printing, had produced a taste for reading among the English.

**Creed of the English Church.**

The king drew up the articles of religion, which showed that he had taken a middle ground between Protestants and Papists. These articles of religion made the Bible the sole standard of faith in England; reduced the sacraments from seven to three—penance, baptism and the

Eucharist; retained transubstantiation and confession, but added justification by faith; and rejected pilgrimages, purgatory, indulgences, the worship of images and relics, and masses for the dead.

Henry VIII. and Archbishop Cranmer.

Archbishop Cranmer, the only one of the servants of Henry VIII. who retained the king's favor from first to last, by his integrity of character, and not by obsequiousness or cycophancy, had no selfish views of his own; but his soul was occupied with one object—the reformation of religion. Wolsey's great abilities were solely employed in elevating himself to the highest earthly dignity. Sir Thomas Cromwell, though a zealous Reformer, was intent on enriching himself from the pillage of the religious houses in England. But Cranmer's character was so destitute of ambition and covetousness that he at first declined the Primacy, and finally accepted it only because he hoped that it would give him better means of advancing the cause which he had at heart. Cranmer's timidity betrayed him into some glaring weaknesses, especially in later life, but his virtue awed the tyrannical king, who usually contrived to send him to a distance when he was about to perpetrate any flagrant act. The king's regard for the good archbishop was always sincere.

Anne Boleyn's Fall.

In the meantime the English Reformers suffered a severe loss in the execution of the queen, Anne Boleyn, who was inclined to their doctrines and exerted her influence with her royal husband in their behalf. Her enjoyment of a crown was of short duration. Her French manners and vivacity, which had so charmed Henry VIII. before her marriage, became displeasing to him after she became his wife, so that his passion for her cooled and he became indifferent to her. Her enemies—the entire Catholic party in England—exerted themselves to widen the breach between her and her royal husband; and in this they were finally successful.

Her Arrest, Trial, Conviction and Condemnation.

Henry VIII. was induced to believe that his consort was unfaithful to him, and he caused her to be arrested and imprisoned in the Tower, May 2, 1536. She now paid dearly for her brief exaltation. Accused of a crime of which she was innocent, she was not permitted to see her friends, and was surrounded by her most inveterate enemies. After a mock trial by a jury of peers, in which she was allowed no counsel, she was pronounced guilty and sentenced to death. Her marriage was also declared void; and her daughter Elizabeth, afterward queen, was declared incapable of inheriting the English crown.

Her Fortitude.

On the morning of her execution she sent for Kingston, the Constable of the Tower; and when he entered her prison she said: "Mr. Kingston, I hear I am not to die till noon, and I am sorry for it; for I thought to be dead before this time, and free from a life of pain." The Constable of the Tower sought to comfort her by assuring her that her pain would be very little; whereupon she replied: "I have heard the executioner is

very expert; and (clasping her neck with her hands, laughing) I have but a little neck."

Her Execution.

When brought to the scaffold, she would not inflame the minds of the spectators present against her persecutors, because of a consideration of her daughter Elizabeth's welfare; but contented herself with saying: "I am come to die as I am sentenced by the law." She refused to accuse any one or to say anything of the charge upon which she had been condemned. She prayed heartily for the king, and called him "a most merciful and gentle prince," and said that he had always been to her "a good and gracious sovereign," and that if any one should think proper to canvass her cause she desired him to judge the best. She was beheaded on the Tower green by the executioner of Calais, who was brought over to London because he was more expert than any headsman in England.

Hume's Remark.

Says Hume, concerning the fate of the unfortunate Anne Boleyn: "The innocence of this unfortunate queen cannot reasonably be called in question. Henry himself, in the violence of his rage, knew not whom to accuse as her lover; and though he imputed guilt to her brother and four persons more, he was able to bring proof against none of them."

The King's Third Wife, Jane Seymour.

The real fact was that Henry VIII. was tired of Anne Boleyn and was anxious to get rid of her, as she stood in the way of his gratification of a new passion. On the very day after her execution he married Jane Seymour, the daughter of Sir Thomas Seymour, a Wiltshire knight. This third wife of Henry VIII. died the next year, 1537, a few days after having given birth to a son named Edward.

Henry VIII. and Princess Mary.

The execution of Anne Boleyn led to a reconciliation between Henry VIII. and the Princess Mary, his daughter with his first wife, Catharine of Aragon. He required her to acknowledge his supremacy as Head of the English Church and to admit the illegality of her mother's marriage. She was twenty years of age and a proud-spirited woman; but, as she knew her father's disposition too well to resist his demands, and as she was aware that her own safety depended upon her acquiescence, she wrote him a letter admitting his claims, and was therefore received into his favor.

Suppression of the Monasteries and Nunneries in England.

Acting upon Archbishop Cranmer's advice, King Henry VIII. took another decisive step—the suppression of the religious houses in England. A commission was appointed to visit the religious houses. This commission reported most of them as corrupt and immoral, besides being centers of baneful idleness and of unremitting opposition and unrelenting hostility to the crown. But the king proceeded with caution. A statute of Parliament suppressed the lesser monasteries and nunneries in 1536, and the greater religious houses were closed in 1538. As the "Black Book," which reported the conduct of the monks and

nuns, was read in Parliament, cries resounded from all sides: "Down with them! down with them!" Thus the monasteries and nunneries were completely broken up in England, and the monks and nuns were turned out into the world, ten thousand nuns alone being made homeless by the cruel statute.

**Catholic Rebellion in the North of England.**

The suppression of the monasteries and nunneries in England produced much discontent and some disorder. The bounty of these religious houses had fed multitudes of paupers, who were no more able to earn an honest living than were the monks and nuns themselves. In the northern counties of England, where the people adhered to the Catholic religion, a hundred thousand persons took up arms and undertook what they called a "Pilgrimage of Grace." They took possession of all the towns and castles north of the Humber. A "Parliament of the North" assembled at Pontefract, demanded the reëstablishment of the papal supremacy over England, the restoration of the Princess Mary to her rights as heiress to the English crown, and the overthrow of Sir Thomas Cromwell. The insurgents set out from Yorkshire for London, to force the king to comply with their conditions. The king was obliged to take the field against the malcontents, and the rebellion was suppressed with terrible cruelty. Four great abbots were hanged and the last of the old feudal chiefs were beheaded.

**Its Suppression.**

**Confiscation of Monastic Wealth.**

All the rentals, gold, silver and other property of the religious houses were confiscated. The abbots were pensioned, and a part of their revenues was expended in founding schools, colleges and six new bishoprics; but a considerable portion enriched the king's courtiers and favorites. The king's greed for the wealth of the Church may have been the principal motive for this cruel proceeding.

**Pillage of the Tombs and Shrines of the Saints.**

Henry VIII. next caused the tombs and shrines of the saints to be robbed of their costly works of art and enormous treasures; and these shrines, so long the objects of adoration and rich with the gifts of numberless pilgrims, were ruthlessly destroyed after being plundered of their wealth. The most famous of these shrines was that of Thomas à Becket, or St. Thomas of Canterbury, from which two immense chests of gold and jewels were carried away to the royal coffers. Not satisfied with robbing Becket's shrine, Henry VIII. proceeded to uncanonize that revered saint and martyr, declaring that he was no saint and that he had died as a rebel and a traitor.

**Excommunication of Henry VIII. by Pope Paul III.**

These acts of King Henry VIII. caused Pope Paul III. to excommunicate him, to pronounce his dethronement, to lay England under an interdict and to absolve the English people from their allegiance to their king. The Pope called upon the English nobles and people to take up arms against their sovereign, declared him infamous, and commanded all the monarchs of Christendom to make war upon him and

to seize such of his subjects as they were able to get into their power and hold them as slaves.

Its Powerless Effect.

The Pope's efforts produced no effect in England; as the Reformers were too strong and the king's power was too great, and the exposures of the fraud and corruption of the Roman Church, in connection with the suppression of the monasteries and nunneries, had disgusted the English people so thoroughly that the Catholic party could not hope for a successful rebellion; while England was too formidable for any foreign power to desire to make war upon her by an invasion of her own soil, and the Pope's spiritual weapons had lost their force.

Catholic Conspirators and Their Execution.

Cardinal Pole, a grandson of George, Duke of Clarence, and a kinsman of King Henry VIII., was residing abroad at that time, and exerted himself to his utmost to instigate the monarchs of Continental Europe to make war upon England, but failed in these efforts. His elder brother, Lord Montague, and his aged mother, the Countess of Salisbury, the last of the direct line of the Plantagenets, and their kinsman, the Marquis of Exeter, along with some others, were detected in a treasonable correspondence with him, and were arrested, tried, convicted and beheaded.

The Six Articles.

Although Henry VIII. had gone to such extremes in renouncing the Pope's authority in England, he was still sincerely attached to the Catholic faith. In 1539 he united with the Catholic party and drew up the *Six Articles*, by which he struck a direct blow at the English Reformers. Henry VIII. exerted all his despotic power to compel his subjects to accept these articles.

Temporary Catholic Reaction.

The statute embracing these articles was called by Fox "the whip with six strings." It was largely the result of a Catholic reaction in consequence of the excesses of the radical Reformers, and it reaffirmed the cardinal doctrines of the Roman Church. The bloody statute imposed the penalty of death by fire upon all who violated it. The English prisons were rapidly filled with offenders. Catholics perished at the stake for not accepting the Protestant head of the English Church, and Protestants likewise suffered martyrdom for rejecting the Catholic faith. But the execution of this terrible statute was relaxed after a few months, and the king permitted every householder to have an English Bible in his family.

First English Reign of Terror.

The ten years of Sir Thomas Cromwell's administration (A. D. 1530–1540) have been known as the *First English Reign of Terror*. Opinion itself was made treason, and a man's refusal to reveal his inmost thoughts was considered evidence of crime. Sir Thomas Cromwell, Wolsey's faithful friend to the last and the son of a blacksmith, had risen by the force of his natural talents from the humble rank of a private soldier to the dignity of Secretary of State.

Henry VIII. and Anne of Cleves.

King Henry VIII., who had now been a widower for three years after having been thrice married, desired a fourth wife; but there were some who thought that the dignity of queen might be paid for too dearly. One lady whom he asked sent him a refusal, saying that she had but one head, and that if she had two she might venture to marry him. Sir Thomas Cromwell desired that the king should marry a Protestant princess of Germany, and showed him a portrait of Anne of Cleves. Henry VIII. was so much pleased with the picture that he sent to demand the princess in marriage.

She Becomes His Fourth Wife.

When Anne of Cleves arrived in England, Henry VIII. found that she was so unlike the picture that he was with difficulty persuaded to marry her. The marriage occurred in 1540. When the king discovered that his new wife was ignorant and stupid, and that she could speak only the German language, he become so disgusted with her that he sought a pretext for divorce.

Disgrace and Execution of Sir Thomas Cromwell.

The king never forgave Sir Thomas Cromwell for his blunder in procuring so unacceptable a bride for him; and the Duke of Norfolk and the other Catholic leaders determined to take advantage of the king's resentment to procure Cromwell's destruction. That famous Minister was cordially hated by the old nobles as a low-born upstart, and by the whole Catholic party for his conspicuous share in the destruction of the monasteries, which had acquired for him the title of the "Hammer of the Monks." Cromwell was arrested and tried for heresy and treason; and, though neither charge could be proven, he was condemned and beheaded without a hearing, July 28, 1540—in the language of the Council, being "judged by the bloody laws he has himself made." His only crime was the extreme zeal with which he supported the king's tyranny.

The King's Divorce from Anne of Cleves.

Six months after his marriage with Anne of Cleves, Henry VIII. obtained his divorce from her; Parliament most obsequiously annulling the marriage, and Anne meekly consenting to the separation and accepting a liberal pension and a fine palace in England in place of the queenly dignity. She remained in England for the rest of her life, and outlived Henry VIII. by ten years.

His Fifth Wife, Catharine Howard.

In the meantime Henry VIII. had become enamored of Catharine Howard, a niece of the Duke of Norfolk, the leader of the Catholic party in England; and she became the king's fifth wife in less than two weeks after his divorce from Anne of Cleves. The king was so much pleased with the wit and agreeableness of his new queen that he caused a thanksgiving prayer to be offered for his happy marriage; but in about a year and a half he discovered that she had not only been unchaste before marriage, but that her conduct still continued shamefully bad. The king was obliged to sign her death-warrant, and she

was beheaded on Tower Hill, February 12, 1542, along with several of her paramours, one of whom had been the chief accuser of Anne Boleyn. Her Execution.

The execution of Sir Thomas Cromwell and the king's marriage with Catharine Howard restored the Catholic party to power in England; but the Papist leaders did not dare to proceed in the course which they had marked out as Romanists, as they would have lost their influence with the king by such an avowal. They therefore maintained their influence over him as believers in transubstantiation. The Six Articles were enforced with the utmost rigor, and in 1543 the general permission to read the Bible was revoked. Only the higher classes, or merchants, who were householders, were permitted to read it; the common people being denied that privilege. Catholic Party Restored to Power in England.

In 1536 Wales was incorporated with England, and received English laws and privileges; and in 1542 Ireland was created a kingdom, after the English authority had been strengthened in that country. Wales and Ireland.

Henry VIII. paid great attention to his navy and brought it to a high state of efficiency. The Navy.

During his reign serfdom was finally abolished in England.

In the meantime Henry VIII. had been seeking to draw Scotland into closer relations with England; but King James V. of Scotland, who was a Roman Catholic, had no desire for an alliance with his uncle, the English king, whom he considered the great enemy of the Roman Church. Vexed at his failure, Henry VIII. declared war against Scotland in 1542. Hoping to anticipate him, James V. sent ten thousand troops across the border into England, but this Scottish army was routed by only five hundred English at Solway Moss. James V. died of grief and shame at this humiliation, December 14, 1542, leaving the Scottish crown to his infant daughter, Mary Stuart. War with Scotland. Battle of Solway Moss. Death of James V. of Scotland.

Henry VIII., earnestly desiring a union of the two kingdoms, negotiated a marriage between his son Edward and the infant Scottish princess; but the queen-mother of Scotland and the regent of that kingdom, the Earl of Arran, who were Roman Catholics, resolved to disregard this treaty. The King of England attempted to enforce the treaty, and sent an army into Scotland for that purpose, under the command of the Earl of Hertford, the brother of Jane Seymour, the third wife of Henry VIII. The English army ravaged Scotland and sacked and burned Edinburgh. Royal Marriage Treaty. English Invasion of Scotland.

As the Catholic party in Scotland thwarted the proposed marriage by forming a closer alliance with France, Henry VIII., enraged at his failure, entered into an alliance with the Emperor Charles V. in a war against Francis I. of France. In 1544 Henry VIII. invaded France and took Boulogne after a short siege; but peace was made with France War with France. Peace.

and Scotland in 1546, by which Boulogne was to be restored to France eight years later upon the payment of a ransom to the English.

**The King's Sixth Wife, Catharine Parr.**

In 1543 Henry VIII. married his sixth and last wife, Catharine Parr, the widow of Lord Latimer, a woman of sense and discretion, who outlived him. She was a Protestant at heart and favorably disposed toward the Reformers. Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, one of the Catholic leaders, and his party, eagerly sought to destroy her influence. They succeeded with the king to the extent of causing Anne Askew, one of the new queen's maids of honor, to die a martyr's death by burning, for denying the doctrine of transubstantiation; but they failed in their efforts to wring from the condemned woman some confession damaging to the queen.

**Anne Askew's Martyrdom.**

**Thunder-storm on the Day of Martyrdom.**

Anne Askew and those who suffered martyrdom with her perished with heroic fortitude. A thunder-storm which appeared at the time excited the superstitious feelings of both the friends and enemies of the condemned; the Protestants regarding it as a manifestation of the Divine wrath in consequence of the cruel fate of the martyrs; while the Catholics considered it a manifestation of the Divine vengeance for the heretical doctrines of the condemned, and shouted: "They are damned! they are damned!"

**Henry VIII. and Archbishop Cranmer.**

The Papist leaders, Gardiner and the Duke of Norfolk, disappointed by their failure to wring a confession from Anne Askew damaging to the new queen, sought to encompass the destruction of Archbishop Cranmer. They endeavored to persuade the king that the Primate and his learned men were destroying the kingdom with heresy, and asked for his commitment to the Tower; but Henry VIII., whose thorough attachment to, and sincere regard for, Cranmer remained unshaken, allowed the Papist leaders to proceed far enough to show the good archbishop who were his enemies and who his friends, and then sternly forbade them to raise a hand against the Primate, whom he declared to be faithful and true. Thenceforth the queen and the Primate were safe from the attacks of the Papist party.

**Religious Martyrs.**

Henry VIII. continued zealous against both Papists and Protestants, and many of both parties perished at the same stake. All who denied the king's ecclesiastical supremacy in his kingdom were deemed heretics in religion and traitors to their king and country. As the king required his subjects to make his opinion their standard of faith, and as he was constantly changing his opinion and causing contradictory laws to be enacted, his subjects found it difficult to steer a safe course amid the perils with which his tyrannical caprice surrounded them.

**Catharine Parr's Peril.**

Henry VIII. was vain of his theological knowledge, and even engaged in public discussions with those who were accused of heresy. Theology was his favorite subject of conversation, but woe to such as had the

audacity to differ with him. Upon one occasion his last wife, Catharine Parr, expressed herself rather too freely in favor of the Protestant doctrines; and the king, provoked that she should presume to differ with him, complained to Gardiner about the queen's obstinacy. The earnest Papist leader sought to widen the breach between the king and the queen, and finally persuaded the king to consent that the queen should be publicly accused and tried for heresy.

**Her Narrow Escape.**

With so capricious a monarch as Henry VIII. it was hazardous for any officer to sign the articles; as it was high treason—a capital offense—for any subject to slander the queen. The paper which was prepared for the king's signature fell into the hands of the queen's friends by some means, and she was apprised of her peril. Relying on her prudence and address to thwart the machinations of her enemies, she paid her customary visit to her royal husband, and found him more placid than she had expected.

**Her Adroitness and Its Success.**

On this occasion the king at once entered upon his favorite topic of discussion, and apparently challenged the queen to an argument; but she gently declined the conversation, saying that such profound speculations were not suited to her sex, that she was blessed with a husband who was qualified by his judgment and learning to choose principles for his own family and for the wisest and most learned in the kingdom, and that she found conversation liable to languish when there was no opposition, and for that reason she sometimes ventured to differ with him merely to give him the pleasure of refuting her. Thereupon the king replied: "And is it so? then we are perfect friends again."

**Her Reconciliation with Her Royal Husband.**

The Papist leaders were unaware of the change in the king's feelings toward his wife, and prepared the next day to send her to the Tower. The royal couple were conversing amicably in the garden when the Chancellor appeared with forty of his retinue. The king spoke to the Chancellor at some distance from the queen, and seemed to be angry with him. She overheard the epithets "knave," "fool," "beast," etc., which the king lavishly addressed to the magistrate. When the king returned to his wife she sought to mitigate his anger, whereupon he replied: "Poor soul! you know not how ill entitled this man is to your good offices." Queen Catharine Parr was very careful never again to contradict her royal husband, and Gardiner was unable ever to regain the good opinion of His Majesty.

**The Oxford Reformers.**

The entire reign of Henry VIII. is noted as an era of learning and as the period of the Oxford Reformers. Though fond of pleasure and display, Henry VIII. was scholarly in his tastes and well educated, and carefully fostered the new spirit of enterprise and mental activity among his subjects. Learning now became fashionable in England.

The nobles paid great regard to men of knowledge. Individuals of the highest rank and of both sexes aspired to be able to speak and write pure Latin, which was considered a polite accomplishment.

**Learned Works.**

The greatest scholars of the age were engaged in writing grammars, vocabularies, colloquies and other works, to aid the illiterate in acquiring knowledge. Cardinal Wolsey is said to have written the preface to a grammar, which is still used in England, prepared by William Lilly, whose great scholarship was the means of making him the first master of St. Paul's School, then just founded in London.

**Colet and Erasmus, and the New Learning.**

Colet, whom Henry VII. had created Dean of St. Paul's, became the head of a new school for the study of Latin and Greek literature during the reign of Henry VIII. By the invitation of Cardinal Wolsey, the renowned scholar, Desiderius Erasmus, of Rotterdam, in Holland, came to England and received a professorship in the University of Cambridge. These zealous pioneers of the New Learning vigorously applied themselves to the work of reform, but found it difficult to persuade the people that a knowledge of the Greek language was either agreeable or useful. The monks considered the Greek language fit only to be spoken by the devil in the bad place, and when the study of this language was introduced into the University of Oxford the students in that renowned seat of learning divided into hostile factions, which frequently came to blows.

**Factions among Oxford Students.**

These parties among the Oxford students acquired the names of Greeks and Trojans, and sometimes fought with as much animosity as the ancient peoples whose respective names they bore had done several thousand years before. After a new and more correct method for pronouncing Greek had been introduced, the party of the Greeks themselves became rent into factions; the Catholics adhering to the old pronunciation, while the Protestants adopted the new. Bishop Gardiner declared that rather than permit the liberty of choosing the pronunciation of the Greek alphabet it were better to banish the study of the Greek language from the universities; and, under his influence, the king caused the use of the new pronunciation to be forbidden, on penalty of whipping and other ignominious punishments.

**Erasmus and His Works.**

With a moral courage reminding one of Wycliffe, Erasmus wrote book after book advocating a reformation in politics and religion as well as in learning, ridiculing the follies of the age, exposing the corruptions of the Church to scorn and contempt, and addressing strong and affecting appeals to men's consciences. In his *Praise of Folly*, Erasmus represents Folly, dressed in cap and bells, as describing, in a speech to her associates, the religious teachers of the time, the old school men, as " men who knew all about things of which St. Paul was ignorant, could talk science as though they had been consulted when

the world was made, could give you dimensions of heaven as though they had been there and measured it with plumb and line, men who professed universal knowledge and yet had not time to read the Gospels or the Epistles of St. Paul."

His New Testament.

The work of Erasmus which had the most potent influence was his edition of the New Testament in parallel columns, one in Greek and the other in Latin. So great was the popular demand for this work that several editions were required. In speaking of the Scriptures, Erasmus said in his preface: "I wish that they were translated into all languages, so as to be read and understood not only by Scots and Irishmen, but even by Saracens and Turks. I long for the day when the husbandman shall sing portions of them to himself as he follows the plough, when the weaver shall hum them to the tune of his shuttle, when the traveler shall while away with their stories the weariness of his journey."

Opposition to the Oxford Reformers

For a period of forty years the Oxford Reformers were engaged in educating the English people to a higher degree of intelligence, and in preparing the way for the greater religious Reformation that followed. The old school men and theologians bitterly opposed the Oxford Reformers at every step. Sir Thomas More once wrote to Colet: "No wonder your school raises a storm, for it is like the wooden horse filled with armed Greeks for the destruction of Troy." And such was the case. That school became so popular that others of the same character were founded; and it is said that more schools were founded in the last years of the reign of Henry VIII. than in three centuries before.

Henry VIII. and Colet.

Efforts were frequently made to destroy Colet—once, when, from the royal pulpit and in the king's very presence, he denounced the wars which Henry VIII. was waging against Francis I. of France; and again, when, at a convocation of bishops and clergy, after having been appointed to preach the opening sermon, he boldly accused many of them of leading worldly and immoral lives. The Bishops of London and others charged him with heresy; but Henry VIII. bluffly replied to those who sought his aid against Colet: "Let every man have his own doctor, but this man is the doctor for me."

Henry VIII. and the New Learning.

The Oxford Reformers owed their safety to the king's protection, and the New Learning was indebted to him for its rapid progress; but the very men whom he shielded from their most implacable enemies he did not hesitate to bring to the block to die by the headsman's ax when they offered the faintest opposition to his imperious will.

Henry VIII. and Hans Holbein.

Hans Holbein, the great Swiss painter, a native of Basle, was invited to England, where he flourished under the patronage of King Henry VIII., who employed him to paint the portraits of his wives, or those

whom he intended to marry. He was twice sent to the continent of Europe, as the secret emissary of the king's love, to paint correct portraits of his intended wife; but the unmerited charms which his pencil imparted to Anne of Cleves, thus ensnaring his royal patron into a distasteful marriage, showed that he was not always a faithful messenger.

**Holbein and the Nobleman.**

As Hans Holbein was one day engaged in painting a lady's portrait for King Henry VIII., a nobleman entered the painter's room; but Holbein, offended at this intrusion, pushed the nobleman down stairs. The nobleman went direct to the king and complained loudly of the insult which he had suffered, and demanded redress; but the king replied: "It is I, in the person of Holbein, who have been insulted. I can, when I please, make seven lords of seven plowmen; but I cannot make one Holbein even of seven lords."

**Last Years of Henry VIII.**

In his later years Henry VIII. became very corpulent; and toward the end of his life he was afflicted with a painful disorder in one leg, which disabled him from walking and made him more furious than a chained lion. This infirmity so greatly increased the natural violence of his temper that everybody was afraid to come near him. Even his last wife, Catharine Parr, though she was his most attentive nurse, was harshly treated by him. Such were his tyranny and caprice that none could feel safe.

**Arrest of the Duke of Norfolk and the Earl of Surrey.**

Among the last acts of the tyrannical monarch was the arrest of the Duke of Norfolk and his son, the Earl of Surrey, on a charge of aspiring to the English crown. The Duke of Norfolk, formerly Earl of Surrey, was considered the greatest subject in the kingdom, and had been one of the king's earliest favorites. He had rendered great services to the crown, and had been rewarded with honors and estates. He was allied to the royal family by marriage in various ways. His son, Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey, was the most accomplished nobleman in the kingdom, and equally distinguished as a courtier, a soldier, a scholar, a poet and a liberal patron of literature and the fine arts.

**Execution of the Earl of Surrey.**

The Duke of Norfolk was the leader of the Catholic party in England, and his renowned son was also a zealous Catholic. The frivolous charges brought against them were of small consequence with the Parliaments and juries of this tyrannical reign. The Earl of Surrey was convicted of high treason, and was beheaded January 19, 1547. The Duke of Norfolk tried every concession to save his own life; but the despotic sovereign, as if thirsting for the blood of the distinguished nobleman, hastened the action of his subservient Parliament. The death-warrant was signed by the king January 27, 1547; but the capricious tyrant died the next day, and the warrant was never executed.

**Escape of the Duke of Norfolk.**

Death of Henry VIII.

Such was the temper of Henry VIII. when he was at the point of death that no one dared to tell him the terrible truth. At last one mustered sufficient courage to inform the dying tyrant that his end was at hand, and asked him if a clergyman should be sent for. The expiring monarch replied: "If any, Cranmer." When the good archbishop arrived the king was speechless, but he knew Cranmer and pressed his hand just as he breathed his last. Thus died Henry VIII., January 28, 1547, in the fifty-sixth year of his age and the thirty-eighth of his reign. His lifelong rival, King Francis I. of France, survived him but two months.

His Earlier and Later Character

The capricious and tyrannical acts which have darkened the reign of Henry VIII. occurred during his last twenty years. Had he died when he was thirty-six years of age he would doubtless have ranked in history among the wisest and best of kings. But the possession of absolute power gradually turned his strong will into blind obstinacy, his wisdom into dogmatism, and even his religious sense of responsibility for the correct religious faith of his subjects into a motive for the most atrocious persecutions.

Provisions of His Will.

Though the Princesses Mary and Elizabeth had been declared incapable of inheriting the English crown, Henry VIII. appointed them in his will to the succession after their half-brother Edward in case that prince should die without issue. In case they all died without children he left the succession to the heirs of his youngest sister, the Duchess of Suffolk; thus excluding the heirs of his eldest sister, Margaret, who, after the death of her first husband, King James IV. of Scotland, had married the Earl of Angus, the head of the great Douglas family of Scotland.

FAMILY OF HENRY VIII.

| WIVES. | CHILDREN. | |
|---|---|---|
| Catharine of Aragon, whom he divorced. | Edward, son of Jane Seymour, who succeeded his father. | |
| Anne Boleyn, whom he beheaded. | | |
| Jane Seymour, who died a natural death. | Mary, daughter of Catharine of Aragon. | Afterward Queens of England. |
| Anne of Cleves, whom he divorced. | | |
| Catharine Howard, whom he beheaded. | Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn. | |
| Catharine Parr, who outlived him. | | |

Edward VI., A. D 1547–1553.

Edward VI., the son of Henry VIII. and Jane Seymour, was a boy of nine years when he succeeded his father as King of England. Henry VIII. had appointed a Council of Regency, consisting of sixteen members, with Archbishop Cranmer at its head, to govern the kingdom until his son should reach the age of eighteen years. The Council of Regency disregarded the will of Henry VIII. by appointing

Duke of Somerset, Protector.

one of its members, the Earl of Hertford, afterward Duke of Somerset, the boy king's eldest maternal uncle, to the office of Protector.

Protestant Council of Regency.

The new Protector assumed royal power and formed a new Council of Regency consisting wholly of Protestants. As he was a zealous friend of the Reformation, he took good care to place the young king in the charge of Protestant teachers; and he desired to make England thoroughly Protestant without resorting to violent changes or persecutions.

Good Character of Edward VI.

The boy king's love for study and early application already gave promise of his future capacity for government. He readily imbibed the opinions of his Protestant instructors, and he manifested a knowledge, zeal and piety very remarkable in a child of his age. His favorite study was theology, and his greatest delight was in listening to sermons. Latimer, who had suffered much during the reign of Henry VIII. for his zeal in behalf of the Reformation, was appointed the young king's preacher, and had a pulpit placed in one of the royal gardens, where Edward VI. delighted to sit and listen for hours to his long but eloquent sermons. The royal youth did not neglect his other studies. His Latin exercises have been preserved, and do him great credit. He was unequestionably possessed of abilities of a very high order; and he also endeared himself to all around him by his gentle disposition, so very much the reverse of that of his father.

His Learning, Zeal and Piety.

His Betrothal to Mary, Queen of Scots.

In the meantime the Reformation was going on with great vigor in Scotland, where the Protestants favored the alliance with England, while the Catholics allied themselves with France. By the treaty which had been negotiated during the lifetime of Henry VIII., Edward VI., the boy King of England, was betrothed to Mary, the girl Queen of Scotland, in order to carry out Henry's favorite idea of a union of the two British kingdoms.

English Invasion of Scotland.

In the very year of the accession of Edward VI. the Duke of Somerset, as Protector, urged upon the Scots the execution of the treaty; but the united French and Catholic influence in Scotland prevented it. The Protector thereupon led an English army into Scotland to compel the observance of the treaty; while an English fleet was sent into the Frith of Forth to assist the operations of the army.

Battle of Pinkie.

The regent of Scotland raised a large army to repel the English invasion; but the Scottish army, being placed between the English army and the sea, and thus exposed to the cannon of the English ships and placed between two fires, was defeated with the loss of ten thousand men in the battle of Pinkie, September 10, 1547—the last national conflict between the English and the Scots. Among the Scottish slain were many monks and Roman Catholic priests, whose hatred of the English heretics induced them to enter the camp.

Among the many Scots who were taken prisoners was the Earl of Huntley, who expressed the prevailing sentiment among the Scots when, in answer to the question as to how he felt in regard to the marriage, he said he liked the match well enough, but disliked "the manner of wooing." The Scots were so irritated at the English that they sent young Queen Mary to France to be educated, and betrothed her to the Dauphin, afterward King Francis II. of France; thus rendering her marriage with Edward VI. impossible.

**Mary's Betrothal to the Dauphin of France.**

The Reformation in England now went on with renewed vigor. Parliament repealed the Six Articles, as well as the old and recent laws against heresy, and the tyrannical laws of Henry VIII. concerning treason. The Catholic clergy were removed from their livings, and Protestants were appointed in their places. In order to obtain the wealth of the Church, the Protestant leaders perpetrated many outrages on the Catholic clergy. The churches were despoiled of their plate; and their crucifixes and images, the paintings on their walls and the stained glass in their windows, were ruthlessly destroyed. The colleges connected with the religious houses, and the chantries, or places where mass was said for the dead, were broken up; and a part of their revenues was used for the endowment of grammar schools and hospitals.

**Progress of the Reformation in England.**

Archbishop Cranmer was intrusted with the direction of the doctrinal part of the Reformation, and was assisted in his work by Bishops Ridley and Latimer. The mild character of the Primate inclined him to moderation. A simple service in the English language was substituted for the celebration of the mass.

**Archbishop Cranmer's Work.**

But the most important step in promoting the English Reformation was the compilation of the *Book of Common Prayer*, by Archbishop Cranmer, who took the old Latin service as the basis of his work, and retained many of the prayers of the Roman Church, in order to conciliate those who were still inclined to the Pope. It was first published in 1549, but in 1552 some alterations were made in it to suit the more radical Reformers; and this Book of Common Prayer is very similar to the one now used in the Church of England. As this book was printed in the English language, the English people soon learned to love a form of worship which they were able to understand and in which they could participate so intelligently; and it was made obligatory in all the churches in England.

**Book of Common Prayer.**

About the same time Thomas Sternhold, an officer of the king's palace, displeased by the silly and profane songs which he was accustomed to hearing the courtiers sing, and thinking that he should do them a kindness by furnishing them with something better, translated David's Psalms into English verse, with the aid of a schoolmaster named Hopkins. These Psalms were at first sung to the tune of songs, but as

**Translation of David's Psalms.**

they soon became popular they were adapted to church music, and were placed at the end of the Book of Common Prayer.

**Thirty-nine Articles and the Church of England.**

In order to secure a general conformity in religion in England, Archbishop Cranmer drew up forty-two articles, which have been slightly modified in the *Thirty-nine Articles*, which form a short summary of the doctrines of the Church of England. The English nation at large was in a great measure brought to a seeming conformity to the new state-religion, Protestant Episcopal in form, and known as the *Church of England*. Some adopted the Protestant religion from conviction of its truth; some because it was the state-religion; while those who had obtained grants of abbey lands warmly sustained the Protector, fearing that they should be obliged to refund their share of the plunder in case of a Catholic restoration.

**Persecution of English Roman Catholics.**

Only two persons perished at the stake during the reign of Edward VI., but many who refused to conform to the Protestant worship were punished with imprisonment. Bishop Gardiner was the most prominent of the Catholics who were thus incarcerated for refusing to conform to the new state-religion. The Princess Mary, the boy king's half-sister, was a devout Catholic, and refused to conform to the religion of the government; whereupon her chaplains were imprisoned, and the princess herself was threatened with imprisonment; but when she appealed to her cousin, the Emperor Charles V., and attempted to escape from England, it was considered prudent to permit her to worship God according to the dictates of her conscience, on condition that she did so privately in her own house—a concession which caused the young king to shed many tears.

**Plot against the Duke of Somerset.**

The Duke of Somerset did not possess talents equal to his ambition; and as early as 1547, while he was conducting his campaign in Scotland, he received intelligence of some designs to remove him from the Protectorship. The malcontents were headed by his own brother, Lord Seymour, who aspired to supplant the Protector.

**Lord Seymour's Marriage with Catharine Parr.**

Seymour was a brilliant courtier, who possessed great powers of flattery, and had so won the good opinion of the widowed queen, Catharine Parr, that she married him very soon after the death of her second husband, King Henry VIII.; but she lived only one year after her third marriage. Seymour then had the presumption to pay his addresses to the Princess Elizabeth, and it is believed would have succeeded in his suit had not other officers of state opposed it.

**Seymour and Dudley, Earl of Warwick.**

Seymour openly opposed his brother's authority and induced a powerful party of noblemen to join him. He was encouraged in this course by Dudley, Earl of Warwick, son of that wicked Dudley who had served Henry VII. so dishonorably. Dudley, who hoped to raise himself by the ruin of both the brothers, induced Seymour to commit

ELIZABETH SIGNING THE DEATH WARRANT OF MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS

From the Painting by J. Schrader

Seymour's Execution.

some violent actions, and then persuaded the Duke of Somerset to have him arrested for high treason. Seymour was tried and condemned without a hearing, and was executed on Tower Hill, March 20, 1549.

Distress Caused by the Destruction of the Religious Houses.

The destruction of the religious houses was a very severe measure to a great many people. Some of the abbots were allowed small pensions for their support, but the monks and nuns who were turned adrift were a helpless class who could do very little for their own maintenance. This measure was also a harsh proceeding toward those farmers who had occupied the Church lands at cheap rents. A larger class of sufferers were the idle poor, who had been fed daily at the convent gates and scarcely knew how to work. All these were now obliged to earn their daily bread by labor.

Distress of the Poor.

Tumults and Insurrections.

Besides the distresses of the classes already mentioned, the industrious poor suffered greatly from a change in the system of agriculture about this time. Many arable farms were converted into sheep pastures, on account of the high price of wool, thus producing a scarcity of corn and a lessened demand for labor. These causes produced insurrections and tumults in various parts of England during the year 1549.

Robert Ket's Revolt in Norfolk.

The most important of the peasant revolts was that of Robert Ket, at the head of twenty thousand men in Norfolk. Ket established himself at Norwich, as judge and lawgiver for all the surrounding country, making his headquarters under an oak tree, which he called the "Tree of the Reformation." The revolts were suppressed with the usual barbarities, and the "Tree of the Reformation" served as a gallows.

The Protector's Unpopular Acts.

The Protector really felt a pity for the poor, and did all in his power to relieve their distresses; and the commotions were quelled. But the Protector offended the nobles by the great state and dignity which he assumed. He likewise displeased the people of London by demolishing a church to erect a magnificent palace upon its site. After being the residence of many royal personages, this palace was pulled down in 1775, and a grand edifice for the accommodation of public officers was erected on its site, but the name of *Somerset House* was still retained.

Dudley, Earl of Warwick, Causes the Fall of the Duke of Somerset.

Dudley, Early of Warwick, increased his fame and power by his stern suppression of the peasant revolts. He now headed a league of nobles against the Duke of Somerset, who was believed to sympathize with the rebel peasants. As the Duke of Somerset was now deserted by all except Archbishop Cranmer and his secretary, Paget, he resigned his office of Protector. The fallen Protector was also deprived of all his other offices, heavily fined and imprisoned. The government was then intrusted to a Council of Regency under the presidency of the Earl of Warwick.

Arrest, Trial and Execution of the Duke of Somerset.

Not satisfied with the overthrow of the Duke of Somerset, the Earl of Warwick accused the fallen Protector of a design to excite a rebellion, in 1551, and caused him to be again arrested, tried and condemned for high treason, and beheaded on Tower Hill. His cruel fate produced grief and sorrow among the common people, to whom his goodness of heart had much endeared him. When his head fell by the blow of the headsman's ax many rushed to the scaffold to dip their handkerchiefs in his blood, and these handkerchiefs were preserved as memorials of the unfortunate statesman.

Progress of the Reformation in England.

Under Dudley, Earl of Warwick, the Reformation in England was carried on with more intemperate zeal than it had been under the Duke of Somerset. The good Archbishop Cranmer sought to preserve to the Catholic clergy the scanty provision that still remained to them; but his integrity was no match for the avarice of the despoilers, whose rapacity spared no one. Under pretense of searching for forbidden books, the libraries of the Universities of Oxford and Westminster were rummaged, and all the books with gold and silver ornaments were seized and destroyed as superstitious relics.

Dudley Created Duke of Northumberland.

Dudley, Earl of Warwick, was now the real ruler of England, and his ambition knew no bounds. The boy king was completely in his power, and conferred on him the vast earldom of Northumberland with the title of Duke, that earldom having been confiscated to the crown. But Dudley's ambition soared still higher, and he desired to raise his descendants to the throne of England.

Ill Health of Edward VI.

The delicate Edward VI., who was a youth of such remarkable promise and of such great sweetness of character, was in consumption; and, as his health was rapidly declining, it was known that he had not long to live. Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, who had gained the boy

His Will in Favor of Lady Jane Grey.

king's entire confidence, persuaded him to alter the succession by depriving his two half-sisters of the English crown, and to make a will bequeathing the crown to Lady Jane Grey, daughter of the Duke of Suffolk and granddaughter of Charles Francis Brandon, Duke of Suffolk, and his wife, Mary Tudor, the youngest sister of Henry VIII.

Opposition Thereto.

This will was unlawful, as it was a violation of the will of Henry VIII., and as it had not received the sanction of Parliament; but it was signed by all the great officers of state. When some of them hesitated to do so, the Duke of Northumberland violently declared that he would fight anybody in his shirt in so just a cause as that of Lady Jane Grey's succession. Archbishop Cranmer yielded his consent only to the youthful king's pathetic entreaties; and Sir James Hales, one of the judges, positively refused.

In making Lady Jane Grey his heir, Edward VI. was concerned for the security of the Protestant religion in England; Lady Jane being

a Protestant, while his sister Mary was so zealous a Catholic that she still continued to hold Catholic services at her own house in defiance of the authorities. But the motives of the ambitious Duke of Northumberland were more selfish than those of the youthful king. He had married his own son, Lord Guilford Dudley, to Lady Jane Grey, thus securing the succession to his own descendants.

**Lady Jane Grey and Princess Mary.**

The health of Edward VI. now declined more rapidly than ever; and the Duke of Northumberland, affecting an anxious concern for him and waiting on him with the most assiduous zeal, dismissed his physicians and placed him under the care of an ignorant old woman, who promised a wonderful and speedy cure. Under her treatment he died, July 6, 1553, in the sixteenth year of his age and the seventh of his reign. England sincerely mourned this amiable boy, as his childish virtues had given hopes of a happy reign. As his health began to decline rapidly after Robert Dudley, son of the Duke of Northumberland and afterward so famous as Earl of Leicester, was in close attendance upon him, the suspicions of the people attributed his death to slow poison administered by the Dudleys.

**Illness and Death of Edward VI.**

The Duke of Northumberland had intended to have the death of Edward VI. kept secret until he could secure the arrest of the Princesses Mary and Elizabeth. He at once sent a message to Mary, desiring her presence during her brother's last hours; but Mary was opportunely warned of her danger by faithful friends, and escaped into Suffolk, sending orders to the Council of Regency to proclaim her Queen of England, and preparing to assert her rights by force of arms.

**Dudley's Designs.**

**Princess Mary's Action.**

The Duke of Northumberland could no longer delay his desperate scheme. He proceeded in great state to the residence of Lady Jane Grey and saluted her as Queen of England, July 10, 1553. She received this announcement with grief and surprise, and remonstrated with her father-in-law, pleading the superior claims of her cousins Mary and Elizabeth, or even those of the little Mary, Queen of Scots; but, as she was of a timid and gentle disposition, her scruples were soon overcome by the entreaties of her father-in-law, her father and her husband, and she suffered herself to be proclaimed queen. She, however, endured the cares of royalty only during a brief, joyless reign of ten days, July 10–19, 1553.

**Lady Jane Grey Proclaimed Queen.**

Lady Jane Grey was recognized as queen by only a small circle of immediate attendants, as the English people dreaded the bold ambition of the Duke of Northumberland more than they did the stern bigotry of the Catholic Princess Mary. The usurpation of the Duke of Northumberland therefore did not meet the approval of the people, who quickly rallied to the support of Mary, who was universally considered the rightful heir to the English throne.

**Her Lack of Popular Support.**

## SECTION IX.—QUEEN MARY AND CATHOLIC REACTION IN ENGLAND (A. D. 1553–1558).

Mary A. D. 1553–1558.

Mary entered London amid the joyful acclamations of the populace, and was at once proclaimed Queen of England, Lady Jane Grey returning to the privacy of her own house, July 19, 1553. In the midst of these popular demonstrations of loyalty to the rightful queen, Mary's half-sister Elizabeth came to meet her with a thousand horsemen whom she had mustered in support of their common cause.

Her Accession.

Lady Jane Grey's Retirement.

Lady Jane Grey gladly resigned the crown which she had so reluctantly assumed, and disappeared wholly from the public view, passing her time in the delightful pursuits of learning. As she was of the same age as the late king she had received all her education with him, and even appeared to possess greater facility in acquiring knowledge. Though she was then only sixteen years of age, she could speak fluently Latin, Greek, French and Italian, and had some acquaintance with Hebrew, Chaldee and Arabic. She was a singularly excellent woman, beautiful in person, sweet and guileless in disposition, gifted in conversation, and was better fitted to adorn domestic and literary than courtly circles.

Her Education.

Her Remarks to Roger Ascham.

Roger Ascham, the tutor to the Princess Elizabeth, once paid Lady Jane Grey a visit, and found her engaged in reading Plato, while the rest of the family were with a hunting party in the park; and when he admired the singularity of her choice she told him that she derived more pleasure from that author than the others could reap from all their sport and gayety. It is also said that on this occasion she told Ascham that she applied to study as a refuge from the severity of her parents, who used to so sharply taunt her and give her "pinches, nips and bobs," if she displeased them in the slightest degree, that she was in constant misery in their presence.

Queen Mary's Character and Attainments.

Mary was in her thirty-seventh year when she became Queen of England. She possessed few estimable or amiable qualities, and her person was no more engaging than her conduct and address. She inherited her mother's gravity with her father's violence and obstinate temper, and the natural moroseness of her temper had been increased by the early mortifications to which she had been subjected. Her education had been almost entirely neglected. She had mainly lived in a sort of confinement during her father's life; and though she had been more at liberty during her half-brother's reign she had still led a life of seclusion and dullness, while constant intercourse and the greatest affection subsisted between Edward VI. and his other half-sister, Elizabeth.

Release of the Duke of Norfolk.

The first act of Mary's reign was the release of the old Duke of Norfolk, who had languished in prison, with the unexecuted death-sentence hanging over his head, ever since the death of Henry VIII. The guilty Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, who had tried to deprive her of her royal inheritance, was at once arrested, tried, condemned and beheaded for high treason; and he died declaring himself a Roman Catholic. Two of his accomplices in the treason also died by the headsman's ax.

Execution of the Duke of Northumberland.

Imprisonment of Lady Jane Grey and Her Husband.

The innocent but unfortunate Lady Jane Grey and her youthful husband, Lord Guilford Dudley, were arrested and imprisoned in the Tower. Both were condemned to death, but on account of their youth and innocence their lives were spared for the time. Renard, the Spanish ambassador in England, whose evil counsels were largely the cause of the misery of Mary's reign, advised the queen to have them executed at once; but she declined to act on his advice at that time.

Queen Mary and the Catholic Restoration.

Although she was an inflexible Catholic, Mary began her reign with a solemn promise not to overturn the Protestant State Church of England; but she soon violated this pledge by reinstating Gardiner, Bonner and Tonstall in their respective bishoprics, of which they had been deprived during her half-brother's reign. With the assistance of these men, she proceeded to undo the work of the English Reformation and to restore the Catholic religion in England, thus replacing everything on its old footing. Her first Parliament was opened with a Latin mass, in utter violation of laws still in force; and the same Parliament repealed all the statutes of the reign of Edward VI. in favor of the Protestant religion.

Reason for Her Catholic Zeal.

As Queen Mary had associated all the wrongs and sorrows of her childhood with the Reformation in England, it is not strange that she derived from her unhappy mother a fervent zeal for the Roman Church and a fierce hostility toward the Protestants. She was supported by many of her subjects with whom the rapacity of the Dukes of Somerset and Northumberland had brought the Protestant movement into discredit.

Her Action toward the Clergy.

Gardiner was made Chancellor, and the Archbishop of York and five other prelates were imprisoned. All clergymen in England were ordered to abstain from preaching until each received a special license from the queen's government, and many of them were deprived of their livings. Mary sent ambassadors to Pope Julius III., assuring him of her desire to restore her kingdom to its old allegiance to the Head of Christendom.

Flight of Protestants from England.

Seeing the approaching storm, the foreign Protestants in England hastily fled from the kingdom, and the country was thus deprived of the services of some of the most skillful artisans and mechanics. Many English Reformers also fled to foreign lands, as did many Protestant English gentlemen. Archbishop Cranmer was advised to leave the king-

dom, but he said that he had too deep a concern in every measure of the Reformation to desert its cause in such a crisis.

Queen Mary and Archbishop Cranmer.

Queen Mary had from the first marked the good Primate for destruction. She hated Cranmer for his share in her mother's divorce; and, as she was of a disposition never to forgive an injury, all the good offices which Cranmer had done to herself could never, in her estimation, atone for that one act of his. She very well knew that the good archbishop had saved her from her father's wrath on many an occasion. Henry VIII. had once resolved to put her to death, and her life was only spared by Cranmer's remonstrances, while the time-serving Gardiner stood by without uttering a word in her behalf; but all these things made no impression upon the vindictive queen, and Cranmer was imprisoned in the common jail at Oxford. Gardiner's intervention spared the Primate's life for the time, Gardiner knowing that the queen intended to appoint Cardinal Pole to the dignity of Archbishop of Canterbury upon Cranmer's death.

Imprisonment of Cranmer.

Imprisonment of Princess Elizabeth.

Mary's half-sister Elizabeth, who was a Protestant, was ordered to embrace the Catholic faith; and her life was in peril during the whole of Mary's reign. She was detained a prisoner, but escaped the queen's vengeance by dissembling her real sentiments.

Proposed Marriage of Mary with Philip of Spain.

As soon as the Emperor Charles V. heard that his cousin had become Queen of England he sent to propose to her a marriage with his only son Philip, a sturdy Catholic like herself. Although nearly all Mary's counselors opposed the match, the queen readily consented. The wisest statesmen in England dreaded the immense power of Spain, whose king was also sovereign of Italy, Germany and the Netherlands, and was believed to be aiming at universal dominion; and the English people were well aware of Philip's cruelty and misanthropy.

Insurrection in Consequence.

Although it was agreed that neither Philip nor any other foreigner should have any share in the government, the public alarm in England was so great that a formidable insurrection broke out in Kent, under the leadership of Sir Thomas Wyatt, who had traveled in Spain and brought home such an account of Philip as added to the horror already entertained of him. The avowed design of the rebels was to dethrone Mary and to place Lady Jane Grey upon the English throne, but the movement failed for want of an efficient leader. The rebels dispersed; and Sir Thomas Wyatt and the Duke of Suffolk, with about four hundred others, were seized and executed.

Its Suppression.

Lady Jane Grey and Her Husband Condemned.

This ill-advised rebellion sealed the fate of Lady Jane Grey, whose misfortune it was always to suffer for the faults of her partisans. She was warned to prepare for death. Her constancy to the Protestant religion remained unshaken, and she passed some of the little time left to her in writing a farewell letter in Greek to her sister, exhorting her

to remain firm in the Protestant faith. Her youthful husband, Lord Guilford Dudley, was also condemned to death; and he entreated to have a parting interview with his wife; but Lady Jane refused, as she feared that the affliction of such a meeting would overcome their fortitude. She replied to her husband's entreaty by saying that their separation would only be for a moment, and that they would soon rejoin each other in a scene where their affections would be forever united, and where nothing whatever could have access to disturb their eternal happiness.

**His Execution.**

From her window in the Tower, Lady Jane saw her husband's headless body carried away, and she followed him to the scaffold a few hours later, February 12, 1554. She appeared on the scaffold with a serene countenance, and declared that she had committed a great error in not having more firmly refused the crown, but that the cause of her fault had been filial reverence, and not her own ambition. Such was the sad fate of Lady Jane Grey and her husband, both of whom were only seventeen years of age when brought to the block, and whose brief career furnishes one of the most pathetic stories in English history. Her father was beheaded soon afterward, and the suspicious queen filled the prisons with nobles and gentlemen.

**Execution of Lady Jane Grey**

**Sadness of Her End.**

The Princess Elizabeth and Courtenay, Earl of Devonshire, great-grandson of King Edward IV., were suspected of aspiring to the English throne, and were arrested and committed to the Tower. Renard, the Spanish ambassador in England, earnestly endeavored to persuade Queen Mary to put her half-sister to death; but, as there was no evidence to convict Elizabeth of treason, Mary did not dare to venture on so extreme a proceeding, and merely imprisoned her for a time at Woodstock.

**Princess Elizabeth's Imprisonment.**

Having thus suppressed all opposition to her authority in her kingdom, Queen Mary sent a fleet to escort Philip of Spain to England; but the admiral informed her that he dare not receive the Spanish prince on board his fleet, lest the sailors should commit some violence against him; in such detestation was he held. Finally Philip arrived in England in a vessel of his own, and the marriage took place at Winchester in July, 1554. A long train of wagon-loads of Spanish gold and silver preceded Philip to London.

**Mary's Marriage with Philip of Spain.**

The English Parliament agreed that Philip should be called King of England during the life of Mary, but stoutly refused to permit him to be crowned or to succeed the queen in case of her death without heirs. The whole English nation distrusted Philip, whose cold and reserved demeanor increased his unpopularity; and the cruelty with which Mary had removed those whom she regarded as her enemies had made her universally hated by her subjects.

**English Distrust of Philip.**

Mary's Affection for Her Husband.

Philip's ruling passion was ambition; and Mary, who was slavishly devoted to her husband, soon realized that the best way to gain his affection was to help him to become master of England. The evils of Mary's reign would have been increased by the sacrifice of her kingdom to her fondness for her husband, had not Parliament, which was so subservient to the queen in other respects, resolutely maintained the independence of England. During this entire reign Parliament was mainly engaged in guarding against Philip's encroachments, while Mary's only anxiety was to increase her husband's power and influence. Although she doted on him with a troublesome fondness, he found it difficult to conceal his own dislike for his unengaging companion.

Parliament's Firm Stand.

Catholic Restoration.

There was, however, one point upon which Queen Mary and her Spanish husband were agreed—the restoration of the Roman Catholic Church as the state religion of England, and the extirpation of Protestantism by the most violent and sanguinary means. Pope Julius III. at first hesitated about receiving such a kingdom of heretics as England within the pale of the Roman Church; but Queen Mary's marriage with so zealous a Catholic as Philip of Spain was followed by a reconciliation between England and the Vatican; and the queen's cousin, Cardinal Reginald Pole, who had so long lived in exile from his native land, was appointed the Pope's legate in England.

Mary and Pope Julius III.

The Pope's Legate and Parliament's Subserviency.

Upon his arrival in the kingdom the legate was welcomed with great pomp and solemnity by Parliament. To his invitation to reconcile themselves and the kingdom with the Pope, both Houses of Parliament replied with compliant addresses. Then Lords and Commons, all on their knees, in the palace of Whitehall, November 30, 1554, received from the legate, in the Pope's name, absolution and forgiveness for the sin of the English nation in asserting its independence of the Pope, and they and the kingdom were tenderly received back into the bosom of the Roman Catholic Church.

Its Refusal to Restore the Religious Houses.

Although the subservient Parliament passed statute after statute repealing all the legislation of the reigns of Henry VIII. and Edward VI. in favor of the Protestant religion, it refused to reëstablish the religious houses and to restore their lands to them; but Mary, more zealous than her subjects, conscientiously restored to the Roman Church such of the confiscated ecclesiastical property as remained in the possession of the crown. Parliament also reënacted the old laws of the reigns of Henry IV. and Henry V. against heretics.

Queen Mary's Persecutions.

Cardinal Pole, the papal legate, was a man of gentle and Christian disposition, who, although zealously assisting to restore the Catholic faith and worship, constantly besought mercy toward the unreconciled. But Queen Mary and her husband were determined that the English people should be forced to conform to the Roman doctrine and worship;

and, under the counsels of the cruel Bishop Gardiner, her Chancellor, the queen inaugurated a system of the most terrible and unrelenting persecution, consigning England's most holy and venerable men to the flames. Gardiner soon became so disgusted with the horrid task that he resigned it to the brutal Bonner, Bishop of London, a man of such inhumanity that he himself frequently acted as executioner because he delighted to see the dying agonies of the victims.

Bishops Gardiner and Bonner.

The persecution lasted three years, beginning in 1555 and ending with the close of Mary's reign in 1558. During these three terrible years for England multitudes of Protestants perished by the ax and by fire, martyrs to their religion; while thousands suffered fines, imprisonment and lesser penalties. Great numbers fled to foreign lands. No regular form of trial was observed. Victims were arrested on suspicion, and if they refused to sign certain articles they were immediately condemned to death by fire.

Cruel Martyrdoms at the Stake.

In all, two hundred and seventy-seven Protestants sealed their faith in their religion by martyrdom at the stake. This dismal list of martyrs embraced one archbishop, four bishops, twenty-one clergymen, eight lay gentlemen, eighty-four tradesmen, one hundred farmers, servants and laborers, fifty-five women and four children. "Bloody Queen Mary"—as she was called on account of these persecutions—justified her cruel policy in these words: "If heretics are burned in the next world, why have I not the right to burn them in this world?" Many of the worst practices of the Spanish Inquisition were introduced into England, to the indignation and disgust of the nation.

The Martyrs.

Mary's Self Justification.

The first of these Protestant martyrs was John Rogers, one of the foremost preachers of the English Reformation, who was burned at Smithfield in 1555 for denying the doctrine of transubstantiation. Another was Dr. Rowland Taylor, the Vicar of Hadleigh, who perished at the stake with the most heroic fortitude at Oldham Common, amid the tears and lamentations of the spectators. John Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester, was burned in his own cathedral city; and Ferrars, Bishop of St. David's, perished at the stake at Caermarthen, in Wales. When Hooper was tied to the stake the queen's pardon was placed on the stool before him; and if he would have recanted, all that was necessary for him to do was to stretch forth his hand to save his life; but he refused to purchase it at such a sacrifice of honest principle.

Martyrdom of Rogers, Taylor, Ferrars and Hooper.

Among the most illustrious of these martyrs were Bishop Latimer of Worcester and Bishop Ridley of London, who suffered together at Oxford. As side by side they were chained to the iron stake and surrounded by blazing fagots, they exhibited a fortitude and constancy unsurpassed in the world's annals. As the flames shot up around them the venerable Latimer thus addressed his friend: "Be of good cheer,

Martyrdom of Latimer and Ridley.

Brother Ridley, and play the man; we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out."

Gardiner's Rancor and Death.

So implacable was Gardiner's hatred of Latimer and Ridley that on the day of their martyrdom he had made a vow that he would not dine until he received information that fire was set to the fagots with which they were to be burned. The messenger did not arrive as soon as he expected, but Gardiner would not break his vow. So he kept the old Duke of Norfolk, who was his guest that day, waiting from eleven—then the usual dinner hour—until three o'clock. When, however, the desired intelligence arrived and the dinner was served, Gardiner did not partake of it; as he was attacked with a sudden illness and carried to his bed, which he never left alive.

Archbishop Cranmer's Doom.

Gardiner had all along stood between the queen and Cranmer's death, as he did not want Cardinal Pole advanced to the dignity of Archbishop of Canterbury, because the cardinal's mild and benignant disposition always led him to oppose Gardiner's violent and sanguinary counsels. Now, as Gardiner was no more, there was no opposition to the queen's desire that Archbishop Cranmer should also suffer death as a heretic, and the good Primate was accordingly condemned to be burned at Oxford.

Queen Mary's Resentment.

But Queen Mary's resentment went so far that she wished to degrade the honored Primate in the estimation of the whole world, and she accordingly employed people to persuade Cranmer that his life was so valuable to his country that he ought to save it by any means. These individuals were likewise authorized to promise the good archbishop a pardon if he would recant—a promise which Mary never intended to keep.

Cranmer's Firm Stand.

In a moment of weakness Cranmer signed a paper expressing his belief in the Catholic doctrines; but the queen informed him that this was not sufficient, and that he must acknowledge his errors publicly in the church. Cranmer's strength of mind now returned; and when he was brought forth to make his public recantation he declined to do so, but bewailed his weakness and asserted his firm belief in the Protestant faith. Thereupon he was instantly led to the stake.

Cranmer's Martyrdom.

When the fagots were in a blaze he stretched out his right hand, with which he had signed the paper of recantation, and held it in the flames until it was burned off, saying frequently: "This is the hand that has offended." Then his countenance became peacefully serene, as if his mind were more at ease for having made such atonement, and he seemed insensible to all worldly suffering, thoroughly resigned to his fate. The next day Cardinal Pole was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and he displayed so much lenity toward the Protestants that he excited the displeasure of Pope Paul IV.

Popular Sympathy for the Martyrs.

Cranmer's martyrdom had a most injurious effect upon the Catholic cause in England. Thousands had witnessed the heroic fortitude with which he had suffered at the stake, and all England mourned the good archbishop. So much popular sympathy was shown to the martyrs that the bigoted queen issued a proclamation forbidding her subjects to approach, speak to or comfort heretics who were on their way to execution. But this command was totally disregarded, as the English people deeply resented Mary's cruelties, which were utterly repugnant to their feelings. The title of "Bloody Mary" expressed the English people's detestation of their cruel queen, and her Spanish husband was hated to a still greater degree.

Martyrdoms Make Protestants.

Latimer's prophetic words at the stake were speedily fulfilled. The fires of persecution kindled anew the zeal and devotion of the English Reformers, and for every life that perished in martyrdom there were a hundred converts to Protestantism. Says Hume: "Each martyrdom was equivalent to a hundred sermons against popery; and men either avoided such horrid spectacles or returned from them full of a violent though secret indignation against the persecutors."

Queen Mary and Her Husband.

Queen Mary's marriage was an unhappy one. She was a small, haggard, sickly woman, eleven years older than her husband. The marriage had been one of policy on his part. His wife was passionately fond and very jealous of him, but he did not reciprocate her affection. Becoming weary of her jealous fondness, and disgusted with the enmity and suspicion which he had excited in England, he departed to Flanders in 1555; and, upon the abdication of his father, the Emperor Charles V., in the fall of that year, he became King of Spain, Naples and Sicily, and lord of the Netherlands and Spanish America, with the title of Philip II., as noticed in a preceding section.

He Becomes Philip II. of Spain.

His Neglect of His Wife.

Seeing herself treated with neglect and indifference by her husband, Queen Mary passed her time in lamentations and in writing long letters to him, which he never condescended to answer. The more he slighted her the more she doted on him; and she burdened her subjects with oppressive taxes to obtain money, in the hope of winning him back.

Mary Joins Her Husband in War against France.

Philip II., who had his father's ambition without his talents, sought to secure the alliance of England in his war with France. Queen Mary could not obtain her Council's consent to join her husband in the war. But when Philip came to London in 1556, and told his wife that he would never set foot in England again unless she declared war against France, Mary, almost frantic with the fear of losing her husband, pressed the matter so urgently as to overcome the strenuous opposition of her Council and Parliament, and war was declared against France.

As Mary's resources were already exhausted in furnishing Philip with money, she was obliged to resort to the most unjust and arbitrary

**Mary's Expedient to Raise Money.**

expedients to wring money from her subjects, and an English force of ten thousand men was sent into Flanders to aid Philip. To prevent a rebellion of her subjects, Mary caused many of the leading gentry to be imprisoned, and adopted the Spanish custom of having them seized in the night and carried away hoodwinked, so that they might not be known nor see to what place they were conducted.

**Battle of St. Quentin.**

The English troops assisted the Spaniards in gaining their victory over the French in the battle of St. Quentin in 1557; but Calais—which had belonged to England for two centuries, and was "the brightest jewel in her crown"—was surprised and captured by the French under Francis, Duke of Guise, after a siege of only eight days, January 8, 1558. The news of the loss of this last remaining stronghold of England on the Continent of Europe—the last remaining trophy of the conquests of Edward III.—spread dismay throughout England; and poor Queen Mary, pining away with illness and her husband's neglect, declared that at her death the word "Calais" would be found engraved on her heart.

**English Loss of Calais.**

**Mary's Pitiable Condition.**

It is impossible not to pity this unhappy Queen of England, notwithstanding her atrocious cruelties. She was hated and cursed by her subjects with a bitterness which words fail to express. Her knowledge of this fact caused her an untold amount of suffering. Her husband, utterly tired of her, remained on the Continent of Europe, and paid no attention to the piteous letters which she constantly addressed him. Her subjects manifested their hatred of her by means of libels, lampoons and ribald ballads, which were dropped by unknown persons where she would be sure to find them. While reading them she would give way to outbursts of despairing fury, and then retire to her chamber to weep away her sorrow. She would sit on the floor there for hours, with her knees drawn up to her face. Then she would rouse herself and wander restlessly about the corridors of the palace, or write those sorrowful, tear-blotted letters to her husband by which she vainly sought to move his hardened heart.

**Her Sad Death and Popular Rejoicings.**

Vexation of mind and feebleness of body threw the unhappy queen into a fever, which ended her miserable life and her wretched reign, November 17, 1558, in the forty-third year of her age and the sixth of her reign. Her death—which was followed on the same day by that of Cardinal Pole, who left an unsullied name behind him—was hailed throughout the kingdom with popular demonstrations of joy, as it ended the Pope's power in England forever.

**Mary's Reasons for Her Cruel Persecutions.**

Mary was a kind mistress to her immediate household, and her cruel persecutions were the result of her mistaken sense of duty. She conscientiously believed it her duty to extirpate what she considered heresy and to reëstablish what she regarded as truth, by forcible means, if

necessary. It must also be remembered that she associated all the wrongs and sorrows of her childhood with the English Reformation. Besides, she had been brought up in her father's court, which was as absolute as the court of an Oriental despot, and in which the king's whims disposed of the lives of his subjects. What makes her brief and unhappy reign appear so dark is the contrast of the bigotry and cruelty of her time with the religious freedom of our own day.

## SECTION X.—QUEEN ELIZABETH OF ENGLAND AND PROTESTANT TRIUMPH (A. D. 1558–1603).

Elizabeth, A. D. 1558–1603.

When Queen Mary's death was announced to Parliament, which was in session at the time, Lords and Commons sprang from their seats; and shouts of "God save Queen Elizabeth" resounded through the halls. When the news spread among the people of London their joy was so great that they hurried in crowds to Hatfield, where Elizabeth was then residing, and escorted her in triumph to London; and her accession to the throne of England was greeted throughout the kingdom by pealing bells and blazing bonfires, this outburst of popular delight being undisguised even by decent respect for her predecessor's unhappy memory.

Her Accession.

Her Character and Accomplishments.

Elizabeth was twenty-five years of age when she became Queen of England. The daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn had her mother's beauty and gayety of disposition, as well as her father's frank and hearty address, along with his energetic intellect, dauntless courage and imperious will. She was tall and commanding in person, had a high and open forehead, an aquiline nose, a pale complexion and rather yellowish hair. She was an accomplished scholar and a fine musician, and loved the healthful sports of archery and horsemanship.

Her Forgiving Disposition.

The new queen appeared desirous of forgetting her past sufferings, and never manifested any resentment toward those who had been instrumental in inflicting them. Even her severe and churlish jailor, Sir Richard Banefield, experienced no other punishment or rebuke than that of her telling him that she would give him the custody of any state prisoner whom she desired to have treated with more than ordinary severity.

Her Aversion to Bonner.

The brutal Bishop Bonner was the only one of her sister's counselors to whom she manifested any marked aversion. When he came to make his obeisance to her she turned from him with horror, refusing either to speak to him or to look at him.

Protestant Restoration in England.

Elizabeth's accession to the English throne was the crisis of the Reformation in England and Scotland; and, as she was a Protestant, she early endeavored to restore the Protestant Church of Eng-

Elizabeth's Vigor.

land, which had been so cruelly overthrown by her Catholic predecessor. At the time of her accession England had been reduced to the deepest humiliation through defeat abroad and misgovernment at home; but Europe soon found that a strong and vigorous hand wielded the destinies of that kingdom.

Elizabeth as the Protestant Champion of Europe.

As Philip II. of Spain was the great champion of Roman Catholicism in Europe, so Queen Elizabeth, as the greatest Protestant sovereign, was looked upon by the Protestants in all lands as their protectress and leader. She was not always able to aid them to the full extent of her power, as she was menaced with perils and difficulties which obliged her to act with discretion and caution. Nevertheless, the assistance which she furnished to the Protestants of Scotland, France and the Netherlands during the wars of religion was of great service to the cause of the Reformation; and the moral influence of the alliance of the "Virgin Queen" of England was of inestimable importance to the struggling Protestants of those countries. Thus England under Queen Elizabeth was the counterpoise to the vast power of Spain during the last half of the sixteenth century, as France under King Francis I. had been during the first half.

Her Great Reign.

England was very prosperous during Elizabeth's reign of forty-five years (1558–1603), making great advances in agriculture, manufactures, commerce, navigation and literature; and never had that kingdom a sovereign who swayed the scepter with more ability than did this haughty queen. Indeed Elizabeth is often ranked as the greatest of English sovereigns.

Peaceful Protestant Triumph.

Elizabeth called the wisest men in England to her councils, and of these statesmen Walsingham and Burleigh enjoyed the greatest degree of her confidence. In restoring the Protestant religion Elizabeth proceeded with great prudence and caution, and sought to effect her object without the shedding of unnecessary blood or the confiscation of a single estate. On the day that she entered London as queen the prison doors were opened wide to all who were confined for their religion, although ere long they were filled again.

State Church of England.

The first Parliament of Elizabeth's reign reënacted all the laws of Edward VI. in favor of the Protestant religion, and made the Church of England, Protestant Episcopal in form, almost what it is at the present time. The *Act of Supremacy* required all bishops, clergy and officers of the crown to take an oath acknowledging the queen as the Supreme Head of the Church of England and denying allegiance to all foreign authority. By foreign authority was meant the Pope.

Act of Supremacy.

Oath of Supremacy.

All the bishops of Mary's reign but one refused to take this *Oath of Supremacy*, and were removed from their sees, their places being filled with the Protestant bishops who had fled to foreign lands to escape

Mary's wrath and who were now recalled. Dr. Matthew Parker, a man eminent for his learning and piety, was made Archbishop of Canterbury. The parish priests, with few exceptions, took the required oath, and were not disturbed. As fast as their places became vacant they were filled with Protestant clergymen, so that all the pulpits in England came to be in sympathy with the state-religion in the course of time.

Protestant Clergy.

Parliament also passed the *Act of Uniformity*, requiring all the English people to attend the services of the Protestant State Church and to conform to its usages, and punishing with fine and imprisonment all who absented themselves from the services of that Church. Unable to submit to this law, many English Roman Catholics fled to foreign lands, where they menaced Elizabeth's throne and life by their constant plots during the whole period of her reign.

Act of Uniformity.

Catholic Exodus.

The *Thirty-nine Articles of Faith*, which were adopted as the creed of the Church of England, became the standard of religious belief. The Book of Common Prayer, somewhat improved, was restored to its former place in the religious service. The Scriptures were ordered to be read and prayers offered in the English language. Six great Bibles were placed in different parts of St. Paul's Cathedral, and whenever a reader could be found these were always surrounded by an eager crowd.

Thirty-nine Articles.

Church Services.

As the Anglican Church retained many of the practices and usages of the Roman Church, many English Protestants—adherents of the Calvinistic faith—held aloof from the Established Church and organized under their presbyters and synods. They were called *Dissenters* and *Nonconformists*, because they dissented from, and refused to conform to, the doctrines and practices of the Established Church; and because they expressed their desire for a purer form of worship, and condemned all frivolous amusements as sinful, they were called, in derision, *Puritans*. For refusing to comply with the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity, many were fined and imprisoned during Elizabeth's reign.

Dissenters, Nonconformists or Puritans.

For the causes of the rise of the Puritans we must look to Mary's reign. The cruel persecutions of that fervent Catholic queen had driven thousands of English Protestants into exile. Many of them took refuge at Geneva, where, under Calvin and the disciples of Zwingli, the Reformation had taken a more radical type than it had under Luther and Melanchthon in Germany, or under Cranmer and Sir Thomas Cromwell in England.

Their Origin.

The Calvinists utterly discarded the surplice, the liturgy, the bishops of Episcopacy and every form of ceremony peculiar to the Church of Rome. The Calvinists even banished that beautiful symbol, the Cross, from religious worship and from the churches themselves, as that emblem

Their Austerity.

was an abomination in their eyes. They also turned "Merry Christmas," the joyful anniversary of the Saviour's birth, into a solemn fast, because both Cross and Christmas were so intimately associated with the Papacy.

**Puritan Simplicity and Purity.**

Upon Elizabeth's accession these English exiles returned to their native land, bringing with them the plainer worship and the stricter mode of life which they had learned to love abroad. The severe simplicity and purity of their religious faith became the rule and practice of their daily life, and produced a character of the type of ancient Sparta, of the mould of early republican Rome. Puritanism was a reform of Episcopacy, as Episcopacy had been a reform of Catholicism; Episcopacy thus being the mean between the two extremes—retaining many of the forms and ceremonies of Romanism, while its system of faith was identical with that of the Puritans.

**Puritan Bigotry.**

Puritanism partook of the narrowness and bigotry of the age in which it flourished; but, notwithstanding this fact, there is a grandeur in the development of Puritanism in England during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, as there also is in the growth of Calvanism in the neighboring countries. The painful but inspiring story of the Puritans and Catholics of England, the Covenanters of Scotland and the Huguenots of France—the story of their sublime fortitude, patience and suffering, as they obeyed the simple dictates of conscience with unquestioning faith—this story stirs the soul, ennobles our conceptions of humanity, deepens our faith in virtue and our trust in truth.

**Puritan Devotion.**

Religion was to these Puritans an intensely personal matter. Though they shrank from no sacrifice, their devotion to their religion was the devotion of rational beings, not that of blind devotees. The one great fact of Puritan life was the consciousness of the Divine Presence, as nothing stood between their souls and their God. Their thoughts were occupied with questions of individual responsibility and individual duty. Life became an incessant and endless struggle to them. They displayed unconscious heroism with the deepest humility, and achieved the grandest results without thinking of worldly fame, as they were inspired by constant meditation on the sublime realities with which they came in contact, but were sobered in spirit by a sense of personal unworthiness.

**Puritans as Independents.**

At first the Puritans had no desire to separate themselves from the English State Church, but strove to ingraft their ideas in the doctrines and ritual of that Church. Some of the more radical Puritans objected to the government of the Church by bishops. When they became conscious of their inability to carry out their desires they commenced withdrawing from the Established Church and holding meetings of their own. Near the end of Elizabeth's reign they openly seceded from the

Anglican Church, as a distinct group, under the name of *Independents*. Queen Elizabeth appointed a *Court of High Commission* to enforce the Act of Uniformity; and the Puritans, or Independents, as Dissenters and Nonconformists, were punished with the Catholics by fine and imprisonment, but they held on to their doctrines with a constancy and a devotion inspired by a conviction of their truth.

**Court of High Commission.**

**Persecution of Puritans.**

Notwithstanding the Puritan defection from the State Church of England, the English Protestants presented an unbroken front to the Pope and to their Catholic enemies both in and out of England. The Puritans never wavered in their loyalty to Queen Elizabeth, but gave their unflinching support to her in the great trials to which England was subjected by the religious and political conflict with the Pope and of Philip II. of Spain.

**Puritan Loyalty to Elizabeth.**

As soon as Philip II. of Spain heard of his wife's death he proposed to marry her sister. But Elizabeth was too well aware of the aversion of her subjects to the Spanish match; and, besides, she was now in the same relation to Philip II. that her father had been to Catharine of Aragon upon the death of his brother Arthur. The very ground of her mother's claim as wife, and her own as queen, was the decision that such a marriage is unlawful. But as she did not wish to offend the most powerful monarch in Christendom, she returned a polite but evasive answer; and soon afterward she announced to Parliament her determination never to marry. She never wavered long from this decision, though many royal and princely suitors sought her hand at various times. This was perhaps a wise resolve on her part, as it enabled her to be more independent and freer to carry out her vigorous policy.

**Elizabeth's Decision Never to Marry.**

The war which England, in alliance with Spain, had waged against France during Mary's reign was closed by the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis in 1559, by which France retained Calais; but there was no return of good feeling, and it was thenceforth that Europe was divided between two great religious parties, Queen Elizabeth being the recognized head of the Protestant interests, while Philip II. of Spain was the acknowledged champion of Roman Catholicism. Offended at Elizabeth's refusal to marry him, Philip II became her implacable enemy.

**Peace of Cateau-Cambresis.**

**Elizabeth and Philip II.**

Mary Stuart, the young Queen of Scotland, who had spent most of her girlhood at the French court, where she was educated, became the wife of the Dauphin in 1558; and, upon the death of his father, King Henry II. of France, July 10, 1559, her young husband became King of France with the title of Francis II. Mary Stuart, Queen of Scotland by inheritance, Queen of France by marriage, now adopted the title and arms of Queen of England, with the approval of the Pope, who publicly denied Elizabeth's claim as queen and her mother's as wife.

**Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, as Elizabeth's Rival.**

Mary was the next heir to the English throne after Elizabeth; and she was regarded by the Catholics both in and out of England as the rightful sovereign of that kingdom, because Elizabeth's mother had never been recognized by the Roman Church as a lawful wife of Henry VIII., and Elizabeth was therefore regarded by them as an illegitimate child and therefore as incapable of inheriting the English crown.

**Mary Stuart and Francis II. of France.**

When Francis II. and Mary Stuart, upon their accession in 1559, had by the Pope's command assumed upon their arms and equipage the title of "King and Queen of France, Scotland and England," Elizabeth remonstrated through her ambassador at Paris, but received no satisfaction. It was evident that the royal couple who wore the crowns of France and Scotland would seize the first opportunity to enforce their claim to the English crown.

**Reformation in Scotland.**

In the meantime the Reformation had advanced with rapid strides in Scotland under the preaching of that great Apostle of Calvinism, the celebrated John Knox, who had returned from Geneva full of zeal for the Calvinistic doctrines. In 1557 the Scottish Reformers leagued themselves under the title of the *Lords of the Congregation*, and the agreement which they thus signed is known as the *First Covenant*.

**First Covenant.**

**French Influence in Scotland.**

The Scottish queen's mother, Mary of Guise, was regent of Scotland; and the Guises, whose influence ruled both France and Scotland, sought to crush the Reformation in both kingdoms. French troops were accordingly sent to Scotland to sustain the regent in extirpating heresy and strengthening the French interests in that kingdom. In 1559 the Lords of the Congregation appealed to Queen Elizabeth, ordered all French troops to retire from Scotland and required Mary of Guise to resign the regency.

**Elizabeth's Aid to the Scottish Reformers.**

In 1560 Elizabeth, conscious that her own throne, as well as the Protestant religion, were menaced by the action of France, sent an English army into Scotland to aid the Reformers. The English fleet and army besieged the French army in Leith and took the city; and by the Treaty of Edinburgh, which followed, the King and Queen of France and Scotland were obliged to renounce all claims to the crown of England during the lifetime of Elizabeth, the French troops were withdrawn from Scotland and foreigners were excluded from office in that kingdom.

**Treaty of Edinburgh.**

**Protestant Triumph in Scotland.**

Elizabeth's vigorous action against French influence and in support of the Reformation in Scotland raised the prestige of England's queen to a high degree throughout Europe. The Reformation now achieved its triumph in Scotland by the action of the Lords of the Congregation, who assembled the Scottish Parliament, which at once abolished the mass, cast off Scotland's allegiance to the Pope and renewed the alliance with the Queen of England.

Mary Stuart's Claims to the Crown of England.

The premature death of Francis II. of France, in 1560, ended all danger of a war between England and France on account of his widowed queen's claims to the English crown; but Mary, in accordance with the advice of her uncle, Francis, Duke of Guise, refused to surrender formally those claims; and she had not yet, as Queen of Scotland, ratified the Treaty of Edinburgh, and persisted in her refusal until near the close of her life.

Her Love for France.

On the death of her husband, in 1560, Mary, although harshly treated by her mother-in-law, the wicked Catharine de Medici, still for a time remained in France, a land which she loved most dearly. Finally the clamors of her Scottish subjects induced Mary to leave her delightful France, and to return with great reluctance to the wild country of the Scots, which she was then to govern.

Elizabeth's Precautions.

When Mary was ready to sail for Scotland she asked permission of Queen Elizabeth to pass through England on her way to her native and hereditary kingdom, but Elizabeth consented only on condition that the Queen of Scots ratified the Treaty of Edinburgh, thus renouncing all claim to the English crown. Appreciating the danger with which her crown was menaced by Mary's presence in Scotland, because the Catholics considered Mary's claim to the English crown superior to her own, Elizabeth stationed a fleet in the English Channel to intercept the Queen of Scots on her voyage to her own hereditary kingdom.

Mary Stuart's Reluctant Departure from France.

After embarking on her voyage to Scotland, Mary fixed her eyes on the coast of her beloved France until the darkness of night prevented her from seeing it any longer. Then she lay down to sleep on her couch on the deck of the vessel, giving orders that if the French coast was still visible on the return of daylight she should be awakened. The vessel made little progress during the night, thus enabling the Queen of Scots to have another parting view of the delightful land which she loved so well. Her regret at leaving that beautiful country was expressed in some pathetic French verses which she wrote at the time. The contrast between the country which she left and the one which she now came to govern increased her melancholy, and the rude and savage manners of the Scots filled her with disgust.

Her Return to Scotland.

Eluding the English fleet in the Channel in a dense fog, Mary reached her native Scotland in safety, August, 1561; but she came home as a French woman—gay, brilliant, accomplished, and delighting in the elegant dissipations of Paris—not at all inclined to favor the severe manners which triumphant Calvinism had made prevalent in Scotland. John Knox and the Lords of the Congregation, absorbed in their stern conflict with Roman Catholicism, had no tolerance for even the most innocent practices associated with the Catholic doctrines.

Calvinism in Scotland.

Mary Stuart and the Scottish Reformers.

Queen Mary earnestly wished to unite all parties in Scotland against both French and English influence. She gave her confidence to the Scottish Reformers and commanded her subjects to attend Protestant worship; but, as she loved the rites in which she had been educated, she insisted upon having mass said in her private chapel. The Reformers regarded this as an abomination; and John Knox, in his zeal for Calvinism, denounced his queen as Jezebel and her priests as Satan's ministers.

Mary Stuart's Unpleasant Situation.

The Queen of Scots being a Catholic and her kingdom Protestant, her position was a most uncomfortable one, as she found herself without the power to enforce her will in the midst of subjects bitterly hostile to her; and John Knox and the other Scottish Reformers treated her with a brutality from which her sex should have shielded her. Her unenviable situation was made worse by her utter lack of prudence.

Her Relations with Queen Elizabeth.

Perceiving that she could not maintain her position without the friendship of the Queen of England, Mary opened a friendly correspondence with Elizabeth, but her course was so impolitic as to convince Elizabeth that the Queen of Scots still entertained designs upon the crown of England. Nevertheless, a nominal reconciliation was effected between the two queens, and they appeared to be the best of friends, calling themselves "loving sister" in their letters to each other, but all the while distrusting and disliking each other in the most womanly style.

Mary Stuart's Marriage with Lord Darnley.

Mary, having been urged by her council to a second marriage, paid Elizabeth the compliment of asking her to select a suitable companion for her. The Queen of England desired that her "loving sister" should remain a widow; and, after proposing several matches which she knew the Queen of Scots would not accept, Elizabeth was very much displeased and alarmed when Mary finally chose for herself in 1565, by marrying her cousin, Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, son of the Earl of Lennox. Darnley was a rigid Catholic, like Mary herself, and was after her the next heir to the crowns of both Scotland and England; and Mary had married him to unite all the Catholic forces in the two British kingdoms.

Murder of David Rizzio.

Mary's new husband was a weak-minded and dissolute youth, and soon disgusted his wife by his neglect, fickleness and jealousy. He conceived a violent hatred, inspired by jealousy, for Mary's private secretary, David Rizzio, an Italian singer, whom he accused of being the queen's lover. Darnley's jealous fury sought revenge, and at the head of a body of young nobles he forced his way into Holyrood Palace, at Edinburgh, and stabbed Rizzio to death as he sat at supper with the queen, A. D. 1566.

Murder of Lord Darnley.

The Queen of Scots now burned with hatred against her husband and vowed vengeance against the murderers of her Italian secretary. Though she was apparently reconciled to her husband, she made James Hepburn, Earl of Bothwell, a bold, bad man, her confidential adviser, but paid her husband a visit when he was taken sick. One night after this visit—February 10, 1567—the people of Edinburgh were awakened by a terrible explosion. Darnley's house—known as the Kirk of Field—had been blown up by gunpowder, and his lifeless body was found at a distance. The Scottish people accused the Earl of Bothwell as the perpetrator of the horrible murder, and as Queen Mary married him three months later she was suspected of complicity in the crime.

Mary's Marriage with the Earl of Bothwell.

The Earl of Bothwell's Flight.

Queen Mary's marriage with the Earl of Bothwell produced a rebellion of the Scotch people against her. The Earl of Bothwell fled from Scotland, and lived by piracy until he was thrown into prison in Denmark, where he became insane, and so remained the last ten years of his life. Queen Mary was now seized and imprisoned in a lonely castle in the island of Lochlevin, by her rebellious subjects, who compelled her to abdicate her crown in favor of her infant son, James VI.; while her half-brother, the Earl of Murray, was appointed regent of the Scotch kingdom during the minority of her son. In 1568 Mary escaped from prison and raised an army to recover her lost authority, but was defeated by the Earl of Murray in a battle at Langside, whereupon she fled into England, to seek the protection of Queen Elizabeth, May 16, 1568.

Mary's Overthrow and Flight to England.

Elizabeth's Refusal to Receive Mary.

The Queen of Scots demanded of Elizabeth either a passage to France or an army to recover the Scottish throne. The English queen declined to receive Mary until she had cleared herself of the accusation of having been an accomplice in the murder of her second husband. Mary replied that she would gladly submit her cause to the arbitration of so good a friend; but when her half-brother, the Earl of Murray, the regent of Scotland, laid before the English commissioners Mary's own letters to the Earl of Bothwell, containing her consent to Lord Darnley's death and the earl's seizure of herself, Mary, as an independent sovereign, refused to submit to a trial by an English tribunal, and was therefore detained as a state prisoner in England by order of Queen Elizabeth, greatly to the English queen's discomfort and disquietude.

Mary's Detention in England.

Her Long Captivity in England

The English queen was induced to take this step by the advice of her Prime Minister, Cecil, Lord Burleigh, who pointed out the danger of permitting the Queen of Scots to pass over to France, where she would be the center of every Catholic plot against England's Protestant queen. Mary's captivity in England, which lasted nineteen years,

aggravated the very danger which Elizabeth's Prime Minister sought to avoid.

**Catholic Plots in Favor of Mary.**

The Queen of Scots soon made good her word that her captors should have enough to do with her, as she became the center of innumerable Catholic plots against Elizabeth's throne and life. The Duke of Norfolk, the leader of the Catholic party in England, who hoped to marry the Queen of Scots, was detected in a conspiracy to place Mary on the English throne, and was imprisoned in 1569 and beheaded in 1572.

**Catholic Rebellion in Her Favor.**

In 1569 the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland headed a rebellion of the English Roman Catholics against Queen Elizabeth, with the object of liberating the Queen of Scots and restoring the Popish religion in England; but, as the Catholic masses of England, turning a deaf ear to Pope, Jesuit and noble, remained loyal to their queen, the rebellion was easily crushed; and the rebel leaders were tried, condemned and beheaded.

**Bull of Pope Pius V.**

In 1570 Pope Pius V. issued a bull declaring England's Protestant queen destitute of all title to her crown and absolving her subjects from all allegiance to her. As Mary would be Queen of England if Elizabeth was not, the Pope's declaration was a bold step in Mary's cause.

**Elizabeth's Perilous Situation.**

As the Queen of England was the head and protectress of the Protestant religion in Europe, she was the constant object of Catholic fury, and her situation was always an extremely perilous one. It was necessary for her to act with extreme discretion and caution, and she consequently considered it prudent to continue her intercourse with the French court; but she accorded to the French ambassador, a man of honor and humanity, such a reception as left him in no doubt as to her real sentiments concerning the Massacre of St. Bartholomew, in 1572.

**Wisdom of Her Peace Policy.**

It would have been folly for Queen Elizabeth, in the early part of her reign, to have courted a conflict with any of the great Catholic powers of Europe, especially with Spain, as her title to the English crown was so precarious, and as her kingdom had a population of not more than six millions, without soldiers, ships or allies. Time and peace were her great needs to enable her to establish her personal authority, to plant the Church of England on a solid basis, to develop the resources of her kingdom and to build up a navy.

**Her Artful Diplomacy.**

The resources of Elizabeth and her Ministers were constantly taxed to their utmost to preserve peace and to gain time. For this reason she alternately raised and dashed the hopes of half a dozen royal suitors who desired to marry her. For the same reason she engaged in incessant negotiations and continual intrigues with foreign powers,

holding Spain in check by threatening an alliance with France, and keeping France at bay through fear of an alliance with Spain, really deceiving neither, but outwitting and perplexing both. Thus, while accomplishing her object, the preservation of peace, Queen Elizabeth acquired that reputation for duplicity and mendacity, in her public and private relations, which has left so indelible a stain on her memory.

Her Partial Religious Toleration.

Whether intentionally designed or not, the moderate ground which Queen Elizabeth took in religion contributed to her personal honor and to the peace of England. While requiring outward conformity to the usages of the Protestant State Church of England, she punished none for their religious opinions, and this was a step far in advance of her predecessors and of the age in which she lived. Had she taken ground with either Catholic or Puritan extreme she would sooner or later have been confronted with a Puritan or Catholic revolt. As it was, the great mass of both Catholic and Puritan extremes remained as staunch in their loyalty to their queen as did the adherents of the Established Church, and rallied with fervent devotion to the royal standard when the independence of England was threatened by Philip II. of Spain.

Catholic Plots against Her Life.

English priests educated at the English Catholic seminaries at Douay and Rheims, in France, believed that the assassination of heretical sovereigns, especially of Queen Elizabeth, would be a meritorious act, because the rule of such a monarch was necessarily hostile to the spiritual welfare of the subjects. Large numbers of these English seminary priests and Jesuits poured into England, and some were engaged in plots against Elizabeth's throne and life. Many of these were tortured for the purpose of obtaining information as to the designs of the Catholic party in England, and were put to death. Among those who thus suffered was the English poet, Robert Southwell, whose fate was a most melancholy one. After long imprisonment, he demanded release or death, whereupon Burleigh said that if he was so anxious to be hanged he could be accommodated, and he was executed in 1595.

Executions.

Robert Southwell's Sad End.

Elizabeth's Aid to French Huguenots.

Queen Elizabeth retaliated on the annoyances caused her by the seminary priests and the Jesuits by allowing the Huguenots of France to enlist men in England, by loaning money to the Queen of Navarre, and by using her influence with the German princes in behalf of the Huguenots. The atrocious Massacre of St. Bartholomew—that frightful slaughter of Huguenots—excited horror and alarm in England; and the English queen made no secret of her indignation and disgust—feelings that she shared with her subjects.

The Massacre of St. Bartholomew and the brutalities of the Spaniards when they took Antwerp convinced England's queen and

**Her Danger from Catholic Hostility.**

her Ministers that the Roman Catholics of Continental Europe had combined for a bloody extirpation of Protestantism. Elizabeth's great danger was the hostility of the Catholic party in and out of England. The strength and activity of the English Catholics gave grounds for the fear that they might, with the aid of the Kings of France and Spain, turn against Queen Elizabeth and repeat in England the horrors, barbarities and atrocities which had been enacted on the Continent.

**Sir Francis Drake's Cruises and Piracies.**

To strike a deadly blow at the Spanish power, that bold, buccaneering Englishman, Sir Francis Drake, was permitted by his queen to cruise along the shores of the Spanish American possessions and to waylay the treasure-laden galleons that sailed annually from Peru to Spain. Although this was piracy when England and Spain were nominally at peace, it was amply offset by the Spanish king's secret plots.

**Exile and Execution of Jesuits and Seminary Priests.**

The activity of the seminary priests convinced the English queen that many a dagger was sharpened for her assassination. A fanatical Jesuit named Campion was detected in a plot against her life, and was executed in 1581. All Jesuits and seminary priests were banished from England on penalty of death; and no less than two hundred are said to have been executed on the charge of "pretending to the power of absolving subjects from their allegiance." The assassination of Prince William of Orange, the illustrious founder of the Dutch Republic, in 1584, by a hired agent of the King of Spain, was a direct result of the teachings of the seminary priests.

**Elizabeth and the Revolted Netherlanders.**

The plots of her enemies thus forced Queen Elizabeth in self-defense to become the ally of the Huguenots in France, and of the revolted burghers of the Netherlands, whose freedom and prosperity the armies of Philip II. of Spain were exterminating with fire and sword. When Antwerp, the principal market and banking center of Europe, was taken and destroyed, in 1585, one-third of its manufacturers and merchants removed to London, which at once rose to the front rank of commercial cities.

**Her Aid to the Dutch Republic.**

The assassination of Prince William of Orange and the cruelties of the Spaniards when they captured Antwerp induced the Netherlanders to offer the sovereignty of their country to the English queen. Elizabeth considered it prudent to decline the proffered honor; but, as she was determined to prevent the subjugation of the revolted provinces by the Spanish king's armies, she agreed to furnish the Netherlanders military and financial aid. She accordingly sent an expedition of eight thousand troops under Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester, her favorite general, into the Netherlands to aid the Dutch Republic in establishing its independence of Philip II. of Spain. This Earl of

**Expedition of Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester.**

Leicester was a son of the wicked Earl of Northumberland during the reign of Edward VI.

Death of Sir Philip Sidney.

The English expedition met with a severe loss in the death of Sir Philip Sidney, who was mortally wounded in the battle of Zutphen, September 22, 1586. This model knight and ideal gentleman was equally distinguished as a courtier, a soldier and an author, and was one of the courtiers of Queen Elizabeth, who called him "the jewel of her dominions." He was also known as the "Flower of Chivalrie" and "the darling of the court and camp." As he lay stretched on the ground his attendants brought him a cup of water to quench his raging thirst. Just as he was raising the cup to his lips he saw a poor wounded soldier near him looking wistfully at it, whereupon he said: "Take this water to him; his necessity is greater than mine." The gallant Sidney—so brave, courteous, eloquent, accomplished and learned—passed away at the early age of thirty-two, and has always been ranked as one of the most perfect characters of history.

Formidable Plot in Favor of Mary Stuart.

In 1585 the English Parliament passed a law for the punishment of persons plotting against the sovereign for the purpose of securing the crown. Mary, Queen of Scots, was the first victim of this law. Of the many conspiracies among the English Roman Catholics for Elizabeth's dethronement and Mary's elevation to the English throne, the last and most dangerous was that detected in 1586, organized by Anthony Babbington, a wealthy gentleman, and John Savage and John Ballard, priests of the English seminary at Rheims, in France.

Its Detection.

The conspirators intended to assassinate Elizabeth and release Mary at the same moment. The Spanish ambassador at Paris had promised to aid the conspirators with his sovereign's troops; and it was believed that these Spanish troops, with the assistance of the English Roman Catholics, would be able to place the Queen of Scots on the throne of England. The plot was detected by the vigilance of Sir Francis Walsingham, Queen Elizabeth's Secretary of State, and the conspirators were seized and executed.

Mary's Complicity and Condemnation.

The Queen of Scots herself was implicated in the conspiracy, and a commission of peers was appointed to ascertain her complicity in it. As before, Mary's letters were the chief evidence of her guilt. Queen Elizabeth was obliged to act in defense of her throne and her life, and her Council and Parliament considered Mary's execution a state necessity. She was therefore pronounced guilty and condemned to death, October 25, 1586.

Her Death-warrant Signed by Elizabeth.

Queen Elizabeth appeared reluctant to consent to the execution of the unfortunate Mary, although she felt no peace as long as she was alive. It was a severe remedy, but inevitable. Finally, after waiting several months, the English queen signed the death-warrant; and her

Prime Minister, Cecil, Lord Burleigh, obtained it from her private secretary, Davison, and had it hastily executed.

**Mary's Last Hours.** The warrant was brought to Fotheringay Castle, in Northamptonshire, Mary's last prison, February 7, 1587, by the Earls of Shrewsbury, Kent, Derby and Cumberland, who were accompanied by two executioners, and who informed her that she must prepare for death at eight o'clock the next morning. She received their message with composure and seemed perfectly resigned to her sad fate. She employed herself during the rest of the day in writing letters to her friends. She retired to rest at her usual time, but arose after a few hours' sleep, and passed the remainder of the night in prayer.

**The Fatal Morning.** Early in the morning she attired herself in a rich dress of silk and velvet, the only one which she had reserved for this solemn occasion. Thomas Andrews, the Under Sheriff of Northamptonshire, entered her room at eight o'clock and informed her that the fatal hour had arrived and that he must attend her to the place of execution. She replied that she was ready, bid her servants farewell, and proceeded, supported by two of her guards, and followed the Sheriff with a serene countenance, with a long veil of white linen on her head, and with an ivory crucifix and a prayer-book in her hand. She then passed into another hall of the castle, where a scaffold was erected and covered with black; the noblemen and the Sheriff going before, and Andrew Melville, her master of the household, bearing up her train.

**Scenes at the Scaffold.** As soon as Mary was seated Beale commenced reading the death-warrant. Then Fletcher, Dean of Peterborough, who stood outside the railing, repeated a long exhortation, which she desired him to forbear, as she firmly resolved to die a Roman Catholic. The hall was filled with spectators, who beheld the ill-fated queen with pity and distress; while her beauty gleamed through her sufferings, and was still remarkable in this fatal moment, though dimmed by age and affliction.

**Mary's Execution.** The two executioners knelt and asked her pardon; and she said that she forgave them and all those responsible for her death, as freely as she hoped for forgiveness from her God; after which she solemnly protested her innocence. Her eyes were then covered with a linen handkerchief, and she laid her head on the block without any fear or trepidation. Then she recited a Psalm and repeated a pious ejaculation, and her head was severed from her body by two strokes from the executioners' axes.

**Her Character.** Thus perished Mary, Queen of Scots, in the forty-fifth year of her age and the nineteenth year of her captivity in England, at Fotheringay Castle, February 8, 1587. She was a woman of great beauty and accomplishments; and the beauty of her person, the graces of her air and the charms of her conversation combined to make her one of

the most amiable of women and to produce a deep impression upon all who came in contact with her. She was ambitious and active in her temper, but inclined to cheerfulness and society. She had sufficiently masculine virtues to give her vigor in the prosecution of her purposes, without relinquishing the feminine graces which constitute the proper ornament of her sex.

**Her Many Misfortunes and Claim to Sympathy.**

Her numerous misfortunes, the solitude of her long captivity, and the persecutions to which she had been subjected on account of her religion, had made her somewhat bigoted in her later years; and, considering the prevalent spirit of the age, it is not surprising that her zeal, her resentment and her interest, combined, induced her to give her consent to a design which conspirators who were actuated by zeal alone had formed against the English queen's life. Her brilliant qualities of mind and person, the calm dignity with which she bore misfortune, and her affecting death-scene, have excited universal sympathy and consequently thrown a veil of charity over the frailties of her life and character.

**Her Sad Career.**

She had become Queen of Scotland in her infancy. From the age of six to that of nineteen she had been trained to levity and dissipation in the French court. From her nineteenth to her twenty-seventh year she had lived and reigned in Scotland, in a succession of follies and sorrows and in the midst of enemies. She had passed the remaining nineteen years of her life in miserable captivity in England.

**Judgment as to the Two Queens.**

The judgment of this great event has been much affected by the personal differences between the two queens. Mary's extraordinary beauty and grace of manner fascinated all who saw her and almost all who have read her romantic history. Elizabeth, though a great queen, was a coarse, vain and disagreeable woman; but she was the champion of progress, freedom and enlightenment; while the Queen of Scots, though she may have been unconscious of the fact, was the representative of an iron despotism. If English freedom, instead of the soul-crushing tyranny of Spain, was to become the leading principle in Europe, the execution of Mary Stuart was a political necessity.

**Mary's Last Appeal.**

In a letter which Mary wrote to Elizabeth near the close of her long captivity, when all worldly ambitions had given way to longings for liberty, she said: "Let me go, let me retire from this island to some solitude, where I may prepare my soul to die. Grant this, and I will sign away every right which either I or mine can claim."

**Her Bequest to Philip II. of Spain.**

Elizabeth paid no attention to this touching appeal; and the Queen of Scots then bequeathed all her rights to the English crown to Philip II. of Spain—rights which Philip promptly claimed and began the most formidable preparations to enforce; as we shall presently see.

Elizabeth's Grief and Rage.

In order to put the responsibility for Mary's execution on her servants, Queen Elizabeth affected great grief and rage at the unseemly haste with which the death-warrant had been carried into effect; imprisoned her private secretary, Davison, for having handed the warrant to her Prime Minister, and wore mourning and for some days shut herself up with only her women. King James VI. of Scotland expressed great resentment at his mother's execution, and threatened Elizabeth with a war; but the English queen succeeded in appeasing a king who was of a most peaceful disposition.

England's Maritime Growth.

In the meantime England was enjoying unparalleled prosperity, and its maritime growth was truly wonderful. The moderate and pacific policy which Elizabeth had so persistently pursued for thirty years had produced the happiest results. The debts of the crown were honestly paid, and the expenses of the government were defrayed by the regular revenues, without having recourse to taxation. The nation had made a rapid and healthful advance in wealth and power. Its industries were characterized by unparalleled thrift, and its commerce covered all seas, pouring the wealth of every land and clime into London, which was then just becoming the great emporium of the civilized world. Both the navy and the merchant marine of England were vastly augmented.

England's Bold Navigators.

The thirst for adventure and discovery had sent intrepid English seamen into every quarter of the globe, and the glowing reports of the wonders which these had discovered stimulated fresh expeditions, thus opening new avenues of trade to English enterprise. This adventurous spirit led Chancellor to penetrate the frozen Arctic seas to the east, thus discovering the Russian port of Archangel and opening a lucrative trade with the empire of the Czar. This same adventurous spirit also induced John Davis and Martin Frobisher to explore the same Northern ocean to the west, in search of a North-west passage to India. The same spirit sent Sir John Hawkins into tropical waters, thus opening an inexhaustible source of wealth in African ivory, gold-dust and slaves.

Sir John Hawkins and the Slave Trade.

Southampton merchants acquired wealth by their traffic in the ivory and gold-dust of Guinea, and Sir John Hawkins conceived the bold idea of transporting laborers from the populous coasts of Guinea to the untilled soil of the New World. The slave-trade, so justly condemned by the enlightened humanity of the nineteenth century, was encouraged by philanthropists of the Elizabethan age as a means of relieving the feeble natives of America, thousands of whom were perishing from their insufferable toils under Spanish overseers.

English Commerce.

An extensive English commerce was growing up with the ports of the North, Baltic and Mediterranean seas. Every English harbor had

for a long time sent its fishing boats into the neighboring waters, but during Elizabeth's reign England began to rival France in the number of vessels employed in the cod-fisheries of Newfoundland and the whale-fisheries of the Polar seas.

**English Aid to the French Huguenots and the Dutch Republic**

The atrocious Massacre of St. Bartholomew in France and the merciless slaughter of the patriot Netherlanders by the Spaniards, which had fired Protestant England with fierce resentment, was another cause for the maritime development of England. But England's politic queen coolly continued negotiations for marriage with a Catholic prince of France, even after the Massacre of St. Bartholomew; and for a long time she looked with seeming indifference at the cruelties of the Duke of Alva, the Spanish governor in the Netherlands. At last the English people took the matter into their own hands and made war on their own account, thousands of them flocking to the Netherlands and joining the armies of the newly-founded Dutch Republic.

**English Privateers, or "Sea-dogs."**

It was then that the English "sea-dogs," commissioned as privateers by the French Prince of Condé and by the Prince of Orange, or flying the French and Dutch flags without commissions, simply pirates, swarmed in all the seas frequented by French or Spanish merchantmen. With the assistance of the English people all along the coast, and frequently by the English officers themselves, prizes were constantly run into secret inlets, where their cargoes were discharged. Sir Francis Drake, the boldest spirit of them all, haunted the unguarded coasts of Spanish America, burning towns and intercepting Spanish galleons en route to Cadiz, with their precious cargoes of gold, silver and diamonds for the King of Spain. It was in such schools that the brave and hardy mariners of England were trained for the great struggle with Philip II. of Spain, which soon followed the execution of Mary, Queen of Scots.

**Sir Francis Drake's Exploits.**

**Drake's Circumnavigation of the Globe.**

Sir Francis Drake, the first Englishman who navigated the Pacific Ocean, explored the Pacific coast of America as far north as Cape Orford, in Oregon, in 1579, named the country *New Albion* and took possession of it in the name of his queen; after which he returned to England by way of the Cape of Good Hope, thus completing the second circumnavigation of the globe.

**Issue between Elizabeth and Philip II.**

Matters were rapidly coming to a crisis between Elizabeth and Philip II. For a long time the Queen of England had been embittered by the Spanish king's secret efforts to excite revolt among her Roman Catholic subjects. For the same length of time Philip II. had been enraged at Elizabeth's duplicity in secretly aiding the Netherlanders and shielding English pirates preying on Spanish commerce, while professing peace with Spain. The crisis was hastened when Elizabeth, under the pressure of English public sentiment, finally threw off the

mask by sending the Earl of Leicester with an English force to the Netherlands.

**Approaching Crisis.** When Sir Francis Drake returned from one of his expeditions, enriched with the gold and jewels taken from Spanish galleons, and Philip II. demanded that the "pirate" be surrendered to him, Elizabeth publicly conferred the honor of knighthood on her buccaneering seaman, and wore the captured jewels in her hair. The execution of Mary, Queen of Scots, finally ended the Spanish king's irresolution, and thus matters were brought to a crisis between him and England's great queen.

**Action of Pope Sixtus V. and Philip II.** The execution of Mary, Queen of Scots, aroused the indignation of the Roman Catholics throughout Europe. Pope Sixtus V.—who so firmly maintained the discipline of the Church—outlawed England's Protestant queen; and Philip II. of Spain was secretly preparing to avenge Mary's death, to dethrone Elizabeth, to assert his own claim to the English crown bequeathed to him by Mary, to subjugate England, France and the Netherlands at one blow, and to establish a powerful Roman Catholic empire in the West of Europe under the supremacy of Spain.

**Philip II. and His Invincible Armada.** With these great objects in view, Philip II. now began to utilize all the vast resources of the great dominion of Spain. For three years he had been slowly collecting ships and great magazines of stores in the Tagus; and he now fitted out a gigantic fleet of one hundred and fifty vessels, which he boastfully called the *Invincible Armada*. The Roman Catholics throughout Europe felt the fullest confidence in the success of this gigantic Spanish naval armament, which had been blessed by Pope Sixtus V., so that it was looked upon as engaged in a holy war, and kindled among the Spaniards an enthusiasm like that of the Crusades.

**Drake's Feats on the Coast of Spain.** Queen Elizabeth heard of the Spanish king's secret preparations, and the English sea-rovers were all called home. Sir Francis Drake, with thirty ships, hovered about the coast of Spain, seizing Spanish merchantmen and attacking unguarded points. He boldly entered the harbor of Cadiz and destroyed the ships and stores collected there, thus delaying the sailing of the Invincible Armada for many months. Altogether Drake burned more than a hundred ships.

**Elizabeth's Defensive Preparations.** Undismayed by the coming storm, Queen Elizabeth made extensive preparations for defense, relying on the superior skill and bravery of her seamen to overcome the Spanish superiority in numbers. The great vigor displayed by England's mighty queen was warmly seconded by the ardor and zeal of her subjects, all of whom rallied to the royal standard in defense of their national independence. Every town in England contributed men and ships for the national defense. Nobles

and common people, Protestants and Catholics—with the latter of whom love of country was stronger than love of Church—labored together with zeal and energy; all being inspired by the indomitable spirit of their Protestant queen. Catholic gentry and Puritan traders alike offered their ships, all manned and equipped, for the great struggle with the Invincible Armada.

**Elizabeth and Her Army.**

Elizabeth called out an army of forty thousand men and placed it under the command of her favorite general, the Earl of Leicester. Side by side in the muster of this army at Tilbury stood Churchman, Puritan and Catholic, all alike ready to offer up their lives in defense of their queen and of their country's independence. Elizabeth appeared on horseback before her troops and made them a short speech, which greatly raised their courage and zeal. Among other things she said: "I know I have the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king, and of a King of England too, and think proud scorn that Parma or Spain, or any prince of Europe, should dare to invade the borders of my realms, for which, rather than any dishonor come upon me, I will take up arms myself."

**England's Naval Commanders.**

To show her confidence in the loyalty of her Roman Catholic subjects, Elizabeth placed her fleets under the command of Lord Howard of Effingham, a prominent English Roman Catholic nobleman; and under him served Sir Francis Drake, Sir John Hawkins and Martin Frobisher—then the most renowned seamen in Europe.

**Sailing of the Spanish Armada.**

The Invincible Armada, under the command of the Duke of Medina Sidonia, sailed from Lisbon for the English Channel, May 31, 1588; but, as it was overtaken by a storm, it put into the harbor of Corunna to refit. It made its appearance in the English Channel, July 19, 1588, in the form of a cresent, extending seven miles from wing to wing, and composed of one hundred and fifty ships. Lord Howard at once sailed out of Plymouth harbor with an English fleet only half as large as the Armada. The English knew the coast, and their bravery and skill were superior to those of the Spaniards. The huge and unwieldy Spanish galleons sailed slowly up the Channel, harassed at every point by the lighter and better managed craft of the English, who undauntedly encountered the Armada and "plucked its feathers one by one."

**The Armada's Approach.**

Still the Armada sailed on its way steadily, and anchored in Calais Roads, July 27, 1588, to wait for the Spanish army of thirty thousand men, under the Duke of Parma, which was to invade England from the Netherlands. As this Spanish army had been at Dunkirk, ready to land on the coast of England as soon as the Armada should arrive to protect its passage across the English Channel, Lord Howard saw the necessity of decisive action, and he resolved upon closer fighting.

Howard's Fire-ships and Drake's "Sea-dogs."

Accordingly, the next night, July 28, 1588, Lord Howard floated eight fire-ships into the very midst of the Armada, as the huge galleons lay crowded together at anchor. The affrighted Spaniards cut their cables and fled to the open sea, being drifted by the wind in a wavering line along the coast. At dawn Drake's fearless "sea-dogs" attacked the broken line, and the battle lasted until sunset, with the advantage on the side of the English, whose speed was double that of their clumsy foes, and who were able to fire four shots to the Spaniards' one. One Spanish galleon after another was captured, sunk, or forced on shore, and the still large but panic-stricken Armada was driven northward.

Retreat of the Armada.

Utterly humiliated and helpless, the Spanish admiral no longer thought of the conquest of England, but only of safety for his broken and dispersed fleet, and he accordingly resolved to return home. But, as the wind blew from the south, he was obliged to sail northward along the eastern shores of England, around Scotland and southward along the western coast of Ireland. The English were obliged to give up the pursuit because their ammunition became exhausted, and the fleeing Spanish galleons which had escaped the destructive effects of the English fire-ships and of Drake's "sea-dogs" were soon lost in the North Sea.

Destruction of the Armada.

A furious tempest among the Orkneys dashed many of the disabled and unwieldy galleons to pieces upon the rocky shores. The helpless crews that escaped watery graves were massacred by the savage natives. Eight thousand of the Spanish chivalry are said to have perished in storms on the western coast of Ireland. Only a third of the Invincible Armada returned to the shores of Spain, nearly a hundred ships and fourteen thousand men having been lost.

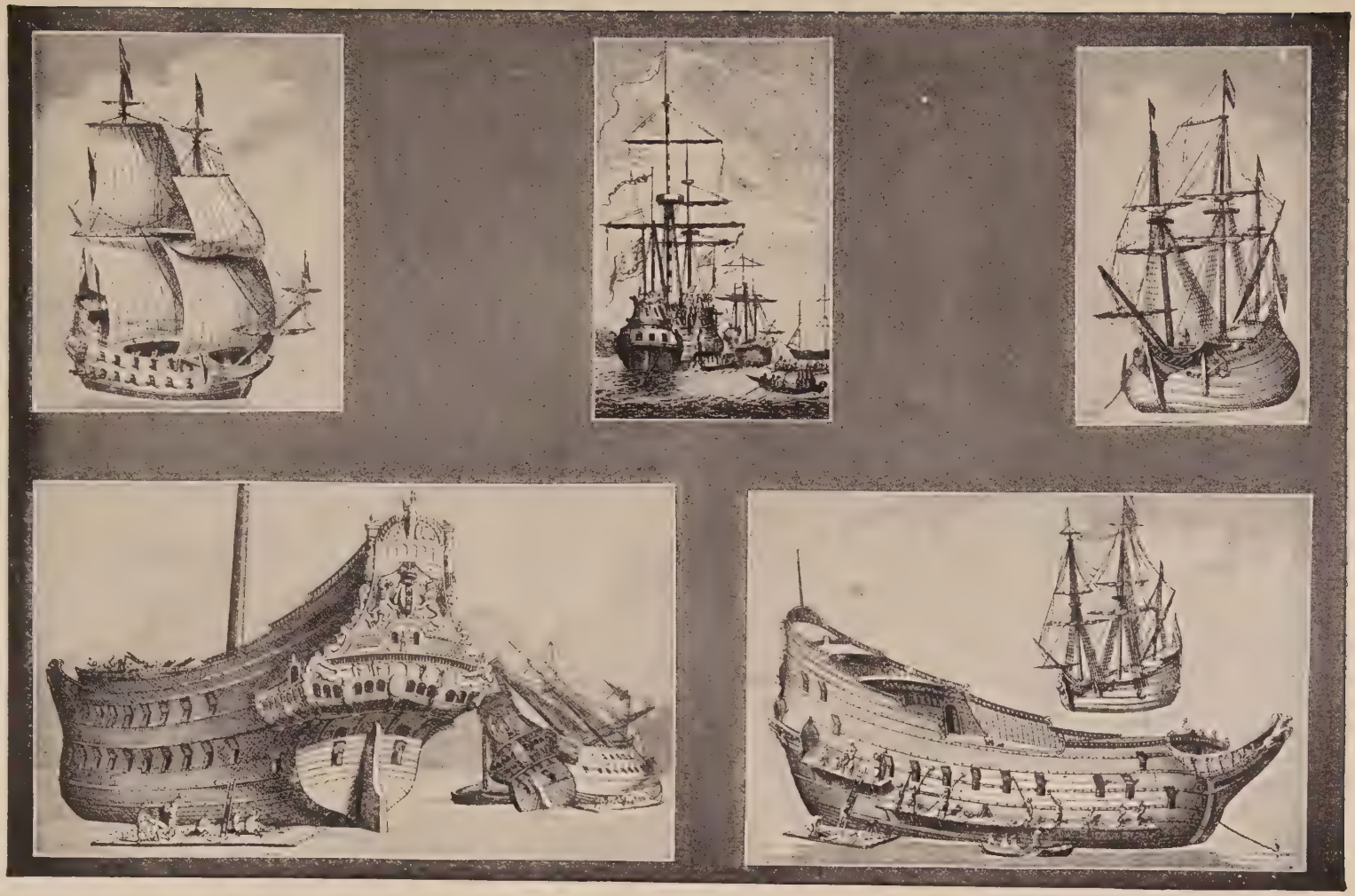
Philip II. and His Admiral.

Spain was filled with mourning for the loss of her bravest and noblest sailors and warriors. When King Philip II. was informed of the great catastrophe he remarked: "I sent it against man and not against the billows." When the Duke of Medina Sidonia appeared before the king the latter said: "We cannot blame you for what has happened; we cannot struggle against the will of God." The triumphant English recognized the fact that the elements had contributed largely to their victory. An old English medal commemorating the event bore the following inscription:

*"Flavit Jehovah et dissipati sunt."*
"Jehovah blew and they were scattered."

Results of the Destruction of the Armada.

The destruction of the Spanish Armada caused unbounded rejoicings in England and throughout Protestant Europe, and the moral consequences of the event were very great. It virtually secured the inde-



MERCHANTMEN AND WAR VESSELS OF THE SIXTEENTH AND SEVENTEENTH CENTURIES

LAST MOMENTS OF QUEEN ELIZABETH

From the Painting by Paul Delaroche

pendence of the Dutch Republic; it inspired the Huguenots in France with hope, and it raised the courage of the Protestants throughout Europe. From that time Spain rapidly declined in power and national greatness, and her naval superiority was broken; while England took her place as a great maritime power, and her supremacy on the seas was established.

**Progress of the War.**

The war between England and Spain lasted some years longer, and a host of English privateers under the queen's commission preyed upon Spanish commerce. With the energy of despair, Philip II. raised another Armada in 1597; but this only brought Sir Francis Drake and his "sea-dogs" again to the Spanish coast. This second Armada was shattered by fierce storms; and Cadiz was plundered and burned by Drake, who again destroyed its ships and stores. Drake again became the scourge of Spanish America, taking treasure-laden galleons and destroying settlements; but the English queen and people had no more fear of Spanish power.

**Drake's "Sea-dogs."**

**Elizabeth's Progresses.**

Queen Elizabeth was very fond of traveling about her kingdom, or making *progresses*, as it was called, and visiting her wealthy subjects at their own homes, upon which occasions great entertainments were given, the most celebrated of these being that provided by the Earl of Leicester at Kenilworth Castle, which lasted several days.

**Sir Thomas Gresham and His Exchange.**

Sir Thomas Gresham, a wealthy merchant of London—who erected a building for an Exchange at his own cost—entertained the queen at his magnificent house called Osterley. After viewing the entire mansion, Elizabeth remarked, as she was retiring for the night, that "it would have been much more handsome if the courtyard had been divided by a wall." Sir Thomas, hearing the remark, instantly put such a number of masons and laborers to work that when the queen arose on the following morning she found that a wall had arisen, as if by magic.

**Burleigh and Walsingham.**

Cecil, Lord Burleigh, was Queen Elizabeth's Prime Minister during the first forty years of her reign, dying in 1598. Sir Francis Walsingham was her Secretary of State. Though she had the wisdom to entrust the affairs of state to statesmen and men of sense, she had for favorites men of little ability and still less virtue, and filled her court with the most frivolous characters, with whom she could unbend the cares of royalty. As she was possessed of a gay and lively disposition, she sometimes treated her courtiers with an extraordinary degree of familiarity, or a strange rudeness, such as slapping them on the back and patting their cheeks; but if any of them presumed upon such freedom she could instantly resume her dignity, and, by a severe look or a cutting word, check all further forwardness; so that she knew very well how to keep up her own dignity.

**Elizabeth's Favorites.**

Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester.

Elizabeth's first chief favorite was Robert Dudley, whom she created Earl of Leicester. His handsome person and pleasing address won the queen's favor for him; and his assiduous attentions, which so pleased her vanity, retained that favor for him. He was guilty of many infamous crimes; but he was able to deceive the queen, both as to his merits and as to his abilities; and he continued in her favor until his death, in 1588, in the very midst of the rejoicings with which England greeted the defeat of the Spanish Armada.

Sir Walter Raleigh.

Another of Elizabeth's favorites was Sir Walter Raleigh, who was born in 1552, and who, after passing through Oxford University with great reputation, volunteered as a soldier to aid the Huguenots of France and the struggling Netherlanders. There he improved his time in acquiring valuable knowledge, so that when he returned home, in 1578, he was considered one of the most accomplished gentlemen in England in all respects. As his active mind would not permit him to be idle, he zealously engaged in an expedition which his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, a distinguished commander, was fitting out to make settlements in America.

His Expeditions to America.

In his first voyage, in 1579, Gilbert was driven back by storms and Spanish war vessels. In his second voyage, in 1583, he explored the coasts of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia and Maine; but his vessel was wrecked on his return voyage to England, and all on board perished. In 1584 Raleigh sent Philip Amidas and Arthur Barlow on a voyage to America. They reached the coast of the present North Carolina, and on their return to England they gave such a glowing description of the country which they had visited that Queen Elizabeth, in consideration of her unmarried state, named the territory *Virginia*. In 1585 and 1587 Raleigh made two unsuccessful attempts to plant settlements in Virginia; the first attempt being made by an expedition under Sir Richard Grenville, which remained a year on Roanoke Island and then returned to England; and the second effort being undertaken by an expedition under John White, who returned to England for more colonists, leaving a colony on Roanoke Island, but upon whose return in 1590 the colony had disappeared. Newfoundland has the distinction of being England's oldest colony.

Raleigh's Gallant Act.

Though Raleigh was so unfortunate in his colonization schemes, he acquired a knowledge of seamanship which afterward made him one of the most skillful English naval commanders. A man of his great abilities could not fail to gain the queen's favor, but he won her special regard by one gallant act. As the queen was on one occasion walking abroad, attended by some of her courtiers, she came to a muddy place which she could not cross without wetting her feet. Raleigh instantly took a new and very elegant cloak from his shoulder and spread it on

the ground, thus enabling the queen to pass over clean and dry. By this act Raleigh won the queen's good graces, and a wag remarked that the sacrifice of a *cloak* obtained for him many a *good suit*.

**First Appearance of the Earl of Essex.**

The great favor which Raleigh enjoyed at court enabled him to procure his extensive grants of lands in America. The Earl of Leicester was alarmed at the queen's rapidly-growing favor for Raleigh, and brought forward his own son-in-law, Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, as a competitor. This young English nobleman possessed a noble and generous nature; and his lofty and impetuous spirit won the queen's heart, though it did not stoop to that sycophancy by which all others won her favor.

**His First Quarrel with Elizabeth.**

Elizabeth permitted the Earl of Essex to speak to her with more freedom than she tolerated in any of her old and faithful servants. On one occasion he became so impulsive in an argument with the queen as wholly to forget the rules of good breeding, and turned his back upon her in a contemptuous manner. She flew into a rage at this and gave him a sound box on the ear, telling him that she would not tolerate his impertinence. Instead of making an apology for his insult, the impetuous young nobleman laid his hand on his sword, declaring that he would not endure such treatment, and retired from court.

**Their Reconciliation.**

The friends of the Earl of Essex sought to persuade him that a blow from a woman ought not to be resented; but he said that the character of *woman* was sunk in that of *sovereign*, and refused to make any advances toward a reconciliation. The queen, however, was too fond of him to endure his absence with patience. The quarrel appeared to increase her affection for him, and she recalled him and bestowed more favor upon him than before.

**Great Men of Elizabeth's Time.**

"The spacious times of great Elizabeth" will always be known as one of the most brilliant literary eras in the history of England. The impulse given to learning in previous reigns, favored by the long peace under the maiden queen, commenced bearing fruit; and men of genius shone in every field of intellectual labor. Sir Philip Sidney, Sir Walter Raleigh, the great divine Richard Hooker, the great philosopher Lord Bacon, the poet-laureate Edmund Spenser and the immortal dramatist William Shakespeare—all these are names that shed luster upon the reign of the maiden queen, no less than did the wise statesmanship of Burleigh and Walsingham, and the voyages of Drake, Hawkins, Frobisher, Cavendish and others.

**Elizabeth's Learning.**

Queen Elizabeth herself made some pretensions to literature, and was the author of some poems. She was vain of her learning, as well as of her personal beauty. To an address in Greek from the University of Cambridge she replied in the same language. On one occasion, when the Polish ambassador said something to displease her, she made

a spirited reply in very good Latin; after which she turned to her attendants and said: "I have been forced, my lords, to scour up my Latin, which has been long rusting."

English Explorations.

Men's minds were stimulated to fresh thought by the opening of "new heavens and a new earth." While such great astronomers as Kepler in Germany, Galileo in Italy and Tycho Brahe in Denmark were familiarizing the grand discoveries of Copernicus concerning the solar and stellar systems, daring explorers were acquainting Europe with hitherto-unknown regions of our own planet. Thus the frosty splendors of the Frigid zone, the barbaric wealth of Mexico and Peru, the jeweled magnificance of imperial courts in India and China, the tropical verdure of islands in previously-unexplored oceans—all these were made known to Europe by the marvelous descriptions of these bold navigators. The bonds which had fettered human thought and enterprise were broken.

Lord Burleigh and the Earl of Essex.

The wise and cautious Cecil, Lord Burleigh, who had retained Elizabeth's confidence since her accession in 1558, had always sought to check the queen's fondness for the Earl of Essex, who would have kept England constantly in a state of war, for the gratification of his thirst for military glory; but after Burleigh's death, in 1598, the Earl of Essex remained without a rival in the queen's regard.

Ireland's Condition.

Ireland, though nominally a possession of the crown of England since the reign of Henry II., was only partially conquered; and the *English Pale* embraced only Dublin, Drogheda, Wexford, Waterford and Cork, with a small extent of territory around each. Though Henry VIII. had made his strong hand felt throughout the Emerald Isle, humbling both the Norman and the Celtic chiefs who had assumed almost royal authority, and demolishing their castles, his effort to "make Ireland English," by forbidding the Irish national dress, language, laws and social customs, utterly failed; and his proceedings in Church affairs contributed vastly to unite all Erin in defense of the monasteries and the shrines of the saints.

Irish Rebellion under Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone.

The disorders which had existed throughout Ireland reached a crisis in *Tyrone's Rebellion*, in 1598. Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, an Irish chief, had been educated at the court of Queen Elizabeth, who placed him at the head of the great Irish clan of O'Neill, in a struggle with a rival Irish chieftain; but when he became master of the North of Ireland he defied the power that had raised him, and maintained his resistance for several years. A victory which he won over an English army at Blackwater, in 1598, gave him an adequate supply of arms and ammunition.

In 1599 Queen Elizabeth appointed her last favorite, the Earl of Essex, to the dignity of Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, for the express

purpose of suppressing the rebellion of the Earl of Tyrone. With the utmost confidence in his abilities, the Earl of Essex hastened to Ireland, but soon found his task more difficult than he had expected; and, after some months of harassing warfare, he concluded a treaty with the rebellious Irish chieftain, in utter defiance to the queen's commands. Elizabeth sent her favorite a sharp reproof for this and other disobedience, and also ordered him to remain in Ireland until he received further instructions; but he instantly returned to England, and, to the queen's utter surprise, presented himself at court.

The Earl of Essex, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

His Return.

Splashed with dirt, the Earl of Essex rushed into the queen's presence-chamber, although he was well aware of how punctilious Elizabeth was about the neat and seemly apparel of those who approached her. As she was not there, he hastened to her bed-chamber, where she had scarcely risen, sitting with her hair about her face. He fell on his knees before her, and she was so taken by surprise at his sudden appearance that she received him most graciously; but when he had left, and she had time to reflect on his conduct, she regarded his last presumption as an aggravation of his previous faults; and when he appeared a few hours later he met with a very different reception, and was given into the custody of Lord Egerton.

His Reception by Queen Elizabeth.

Mental agitation now threw the Earl of Essex into a serious illness. The queen's affection returned when she was informed of her favorite's danger. She ordered eight physicians to consult on his case, and sent one of them with some broth, saying that if she could visit him consistently with her honor she would do so, the tears all the while running down her cheeks. Thereupon the Earl of Essex recovered and was permitted to remain in retirement in his own house.

Her Solicitude in His Illness.

After a long struggle between her affection for her favorite and her sense of justice, Elizabeth at length consented that the Earl of Essex should be called to account for his mismanagement of affairs in Ireland. He did not attempt to excuse himself, but made an humble submission to the queen, who received his contrite messages with great complacency. He then applied to the queen to renew the grant which she had formerly made to him; but she refused, with the remark that "an ungovernable beast must be stinted in his provender." This contemptuous expression was more than the proud heart of the Earl of Essex could endure, and he flew into an uncontrollable rage, during which he declared that "the queen, now that she was an old woman, was as crooked in her mind as in her person." This was reported to Elizabeth. It was bad enough to call her, who was so vain of her person, crooked; but to call her old was still worse.

Her Quarrel with Him.

The breach between the queen and her favorite now appeared irreparable. Utterly maddened by passion, the Earl of Essex entered

His Plot and Revolt

into a treasonable correspondence with King James VI. of Scotland to dethrone Elizabeth, and endeavored to excite a riot in London; but he was arrested and committed to the Tower. His trial soon followed, and his guilt was so evident that the queen did not have the least pretext to grant him a pardon. Her affection for her favorite and her resentment for his recent conduct reduced Elizabeth to a pitable condition of mind, and a long and painful vacillation on her part followed. She signed the death-warrant; then countermanded it; again determined on his death; then felt a new return of tenderness.

**The Queen's Vacillation.**

Knowing his impetuous temper, the queen had in a moment of tenderness years before given the Earl of Essex a ring, assuring him that if he ever got into trouble his return of that ring would give him a favorable hearing. Now that he lay under sentence of death she looked confidently for the return of the ring; but, after waiting in vain day after day, and attributing his failure to send it to his obstinancy, the offended pride of the disappointed and resentful queen, both as sovereign and friend, led her to sign the death-warrant; and the unfortunate Earl of Essex was beheaded on Tower Hill, February 25, 1601, in the thirty-fourth year of his age.

**The Earl of Essex and the Queen's Ring.**

**His Execution.**

Two years afterward the Countess of Nottingham, one of Elizabeth's courtiers, when on her deathbed called the queen to her bedside and confessed that the Earl of Essex had just before his execution handed her the ring to return it to Her Majesty, but that she had withheld it at her husband's command. In a paroxysm of rage and grief, Queen Elizabeth shook the dying countess in her bed, crying: "God may forgive you, but I never can!"

**Deathbed Confession of the Countess of Nottingham.**

In her agony of grief and despair, Elizabeth shut herself up in her palace, and, throwing herself on the floor, she became a prey to a deep melancholy from which she never recovered. Though the Irish rebellion was subdued by Lord Mountjoy, and many English victories were won over the Spaniards, the poor queen took no heed. For ten days and nights she lay on the floor, supported by cushions. She refused to go to bed or to take anything whatever prescribed for her by her physician.

**Elizabeth's Last Sad Days.**

As the queen's end was visibly approaching, her attendants requested her to appoint her successor. When the name of Lord Beauchamp, a member of the royal family, was mentioned, she said, with a display of the old Tudor spirit: "I will have no rogue's son in my seat." King James VI. of Scotland was named, but the dying queen was speechless and could only signify her assent. Being too weak to make any resistance, she was laid in her bed; and the next morning, March 24, 1603, she died in the seventieth year of her age and the forty-fifth of her reign.

**Her Appointed Successor.**

**Her Death.**

End of the Tudor Dynasty.

Thus, like her sister and predecessor, Elizabeth died broken-hearted. Such was the melancholy end of the most brilliant reign in English history; and thus ended the Tudor dynasty, which, comprising five reigns, had worn the English crown for one hundred and eighteen years (A. D. 1485–1603).

Elizabeth's Character.

Elizabeth was a good queen, but not a good woman. In character she had the most contradictory qualities; uniting, in a marked degree, her father's iron will, imperious temper and sound judgment with her mother's insincerity, vacillation and vanity. She was frequently exceedingly coarse in her manners and occasionally very profane in her speech.

Her Regard for Her Subjects.

Though Elizabeth was arbitrary in her rule, like her father, she was never a tyrant like him, and when the occasion required concession she knew how to yield. Two years before her death she granted many monopolies to favored individuals, but when she perceived that they had caused dissatisfaction she sent a message to the House of Commons reversing all the grants. To a committee sent to express the gratitude of the Commons for Her Majesty's gracious act, she returned her thanks for reminding her of an error into which she had fallen because of mistaken judgment. Said she to her Parliament: "I have desired to have the obedience of my subjects by love, and not by compulsion."

"Good Queen Bess."

Because of her earnest desire to win the affections and promote the welfare of her subjects, notwithstanding her faults, the English people have ever since looked back with pride and pleasure to "the golden days of Good Queen Bess."

## SECTION XI.—MARY STUART AND REFORMATION IN SCOTLAND (A. D. 1513–1603).

James V., A. D. 1513–1542.

James V., an infant of two years, became King of Scotland upon the death of his father, James IV., in the disastrous battle of Flodden Field, in September, 1513. In the midst of the grief caused by that catastrophe, all Scotland was filled with alarm. Edinburgh was fortified with a wall, and preparations were made to resist the advance of the victorious English. These precautions were, however, unnecessary, as King Henry VIII. of England generously declined to press his advantage against his sister Margaret, the widow of King James IV.; and, as his own kingdom was safe, he disbanded his army.

Grief, Alarm and Precautions.

Margaret and the Duke of Albany.

The Scottish Parliament met at Perth and appointed the widowed Queen Margaret regent; but within a year she married the Earl of Angus, the head of the great Douglas family of Scotland; whereupon the Parliament made John, Duke of Albany, the High Admiral of

France and the nephew of King James III. of Scotland, regent in her stead. Peace was also made with England. The great number of Frenchmen which the Duke of Albany brought with him to Scotland made him very unpopular at first; and Margaret at first refused to give up the young king to him, but she was besieged in Stirling Castle and forced to yield.

**The Hamiltons and the Douglases.**

The Hamiltons, headed by the Earl of Arran, and the Douglases, under the leadership of the Earl of Angus, distracted Scotland by the constant warfare which they kept up against each other. The regent, the Duke of Albany, aided by the French, put an end to the strife between the two hostile Scottish families. He seized the Earl of Angus and sent him to France, whence he soon made his escape to England and joined his wife, who had fled to that country. Lord Home and his brother, two of the most powerful of the Douglas faction, were seized, and beheaded after a mock trial.

**The Duke of Albany and the French Garrisons.**

The Duke of Albany went back to France about a year after his appointment as regent of Scotland, leaving Anthony de la Bastie, a Frenchman, as his representative in Scotland, and placing French garrisons in the Scottish fortresses, thus increasing the Scottish hatred of the French to the greatest degree. Anthony de la Bastie was killed by the Homes in revenge for the death of Lord Home. The feud between the Hamiltons and the Douglases was now renewed with more than its former violence, and the rival factions fought their battles in the very streets of Edinburgh. The Douglases were generally the successful party, and the Earl of Angus drove the Hamiltons from Edinburgh and held the city with an armed force. After remaining in France for five years, the Duke of Albany was induced to return to Scotland by the threats and entreaties of the Scottish Parliament, A. D. 1520.

**Feuds of the Hamiltons and the Douglases.**

**Interference of Henry VIII. of England.**

In 1522 King Henry VIII. of England commenced interfering in the affairs of Scotland by demanding that the Duke of Albany should be dismissed from the regency and that Scotland should renounce her alliance with France. The Scottish Parliament rejected the English king's demand and made preparations for war, and a desultory warfare followed between the English and the Scots along the border. The Duke of Albany greatly disgusted the Scottish nation by his mismanagement, and in 1524 he abandoned the regency and sailed for France.

**Border War.**

**English and French Parties in Scotland.**

After the Duke of Albany had left Scotland, Henry VIII. of England sought to force the Scots to renounce their alliance ith France, and in this he was warmly supported by his widowed sister Margaret, the mother of the boy King of Scotland. The head of the French party in Scotland was Cardinal Beaton, Archbishop of St. Andrews, who exerted himself to check the designs of the King of England. But the

English influence was more powerful for the time; and, in accordance with the advice of Henry VIII., King James V., then twelve years of age, assumed the government of Scotland in his own name, by the act called *The Erection of the King*, August, 1524. **Erection of the King.**

The defeat and capture of King Francis I. of France by the Germans and Spaniards in the battle of Pavia, in 1525, aroused great sympathy for him in Scotland and again turned the current of popular feeling in that country in favor of France. **Scottish Sympathy for France.**

In 1526 King James V., then fourteen years of age, chose the Earls of Angus, Argyle and Errol as his guardians. The Earl of Angus was the first to enter upon his duties; but when his term expired he refused to resign the custody of the boy king's person, holding him in his power for two years and tyrannizing over him in such a manner as to acquire the youthful monarch's cordial hatred. **Guardianship of the Earls of Angus and Argyle.**

In 1528 James V. escaped by night from Falkland and rode to Stirling Castle, disguised as a groom. He immediately set to work to crush the Douglases, and was so successful that the Earl of Angus was obliged to seek refuge in England. That powerful Scottish nobleman's possessions were confiscated, and his branch of the great Douglas family was thoroughly ruined. **Overthrow of the Douglases.**

King James V. next directed his attention to the borderers, who had become as lawless as the Highlanders. He chastised them severely, and hanged their most prominent leader, John Armstrong, as a common thief. **Borderers Chastised.**

It was the steady policy of James V. to break the power of the Scottish nobles and to increase the authority of the Scottish crown. He made important reforms in the administration of justice, and in every way he protected and befriended his humblest subjects against the violence and extortion of the nobles. In this way he obtained their enthusiastic devotion and acquired the title of "King of the Commons." **Increase of Royal Power.** **Reforms.**

James V. was a faithful Roman Catholic; but the Reformation made great progress in Scotland during his reign, in spite of the cruel persecution inaugurated by Cardinal Beaton, the Primate of Scotland. **Reformation in Scotland.**

In 1542 Scotland became involved in a war with England, and a Scottish army of ten thousand men was sent to invade that kingdom; but this army was surprised and shamefully routed by five hundred English at Solway Moss, December 6, 1542, as already noticed in the history of England. King James V. received the news at Caerlaverock Castle, and at the same time he was informed that a daughter was born to him. This daughter was the celebrated and unfortunate Mary, Queen of Scots. The failure of a male heir and the shameful defeat of his army were more than the poor king could endure; and he died **War with England.** **Battle of Solway Moss.** **Death of James V.** **Mary A. D. 1542–1567.**

of grief and disappointment eight days later, December 14, 1542, leaving the crown of Scotland to his infant daughter, MARY.

James Hamilton and Mary of Guise.

James Hamilton, Earl of Arran, was chosen regent for the infant Queen Mary, who was left in the care of her mother, Mary of Guise, the second wife of James V. Mary of Guise belonged to the powerful French family of Lorraine having that name.

Scheme of Henry VIII. of England.

All Scotland was disheartened by the catastrophe at Solway Moss, and Henry VIII. of England took advantage of this despondency to force the Scots to consent to a treaty providing for the marriage of the infant Queen Mary with his own son Edward, Prince of Wales, afterward King Edward VI. of England. In this way Henry VIII. hoped to unite the crowns of Scotland and England.

War with England.

When the Scots had recovered from their depression their Parliament repudiated the treaty forced upon them by the English monarch, whereupon Henry VIII. declared war against Scotland, May 1, 1544. An

English Invasions of Scotland.

English army under the Earl of Hertford then made a savage raid into Scotland, and sacked and burned Leith and Edinburgh, but was defeated and driven out of Scotland. The next year the Earl of Hertford renewed his invasion and ravaged the southern part of Scotland with dreadful cruelty, burning between two and three hundred villages and a number of towns, churches and manors; but the English effected no permanent conquest of the country, and the Earl of Hertford returned to England.

Battle of Pinkie.

In 1547 the Earl of Hertford, then Duke of Somerset and Protector of England during the minority of King Edward VI., invaded Scotland a third time, and defeated the Scots at Pinkie with the loss of ten thousand men, September 10, 1547. The Duke of Somerset then returned to England with the greater part of his army; but, as the English held possession of the southern fortresses of Scotland, the regent of Scotland sent little Queen Mary to France to be there educated and betrothed to the Dauphin, thus rendering her marriage with

Infant Queen Mary Betrothed to the Dauphin of France.

Edward VI. of England forever impossible. By extraordinary exertions and with the aid of six thousand French troops, the regent of Scotland drove the English back into their own country; and peace was made between Scotland and England in 1550, thus ending the last national war between the two British kingdoms.

Progress of the Reformation in Scotland.

In the meantime the Reformation was making rapid progress in Scotland. The Scots were highly exasperated by the persecutions with which the Roman Catholic clergy, under the leadership of Cardinal Beaton, the Primate of Scotland, sought to check the advance of Protestantism; and the only effect of the persecutions was to make numerous converts to the Reformed doctrines. A large party in Scotland applauded the course of King Henry VIII. of England in sup-

pressing the monasteries and nunneries in his kingdom, and advocated the adoption of similar proceedings in their own country.

Murder of Cardinal Beaton.

In 1545 George Wishart was burned to death for preaching the doctrines of the Reformation. Sixteen of his disciples were admitted into the Castle of St. Andrews, Cardinal Beaton's stronghold, and murdered the Primate in revenge for the martyrdom of their teacher. They held possession of the castle for fourteen months against all the efforts of the regent to retake it, but were finally forced to submit and were sent to the French galleys. Among the number was John Knox, who afterward became so famous as the great Apostle of Calvinism in Scotland. The regent appointed his own brother, John Hamilton, to the office of Archbishop of St. Andrews to succeed the murdered Cardinal Beaton.

Punishment of the Reformers.

Regency of Mary of Guise.

The Earl of Arran was created Duke of Chatelherault by King Henry II. of France in 1554, whereupon he resigned the regency of Scotland and went to France. Mary of Guise, the mother of the girl queen Mary, then became regent; and in 1558 she secured the marriage of her daughter with the Dauphin Francis, the heir to the French crown. The next year, upon the death of his father, King Henry II., the Dauphin became King of France with the title of Francis II.; so that the crowns of France and Scotland were now united by marriage. The result was that the French influence became predominant in Scotland, the queen-regent appointing Frenchmen to many of the offices in the kingdom and putting them in charge of the Scottish fortresses. By their airs of superiority these French officials soon became cordially detested by the Scots, who were impatient to have them out of the country.

Marriage Union of the Crowns of Scotland and France.

Result.

Scottish Sympathy for English Religious Exiles in Scotland.

The Reformation had advanced rapidly in Scotland since the death of James V. The cruel persecutions of the Protestants in England by Bloody Queen Mary caused many of them to seek refuge in Scotland. These English religious exiles were kindly welcomed by the Scots, who displayed an ardent sympathy for them in their sufferings, and who abhorred the Church that had been the cause of so much misery. The growing zeal of the Scots for the Reformation overcame their recent national antipathy toward the English, and Bloody Queen Mary's cruelties struck a death-blow to Romanism in Scotland as well as in her own kingdom.

Calvinism in Scotland.

The Reformation took a different form in Scotland from that taken in England; and, instead of taking the Episcopal Church of England as their model, the Scottish Protestants followed the standard of the Huguenots of France by adopting Calvinism as their religion, which involved great changes in both organization and creed. The Catholic clergy in Scotland, like their brethren in other countries, had lost their

The Catholic Clergy and the Scottish Reformers.

influence over the common people by the immoral lives and ignorance of many of them, and had disgusted the Scottish nation by their rapacity and their gross abuse of their spiritual authority. Many of the Scottish nobles sympathized with the Reformers, and many others sided with them because they hoped to obtain some of the fertile and well-cultivated lands of the Roman Church in Scotland in the event of its overthrow.

The First Covenanters.

Calvinism was growing silently but rapidly in Scotland, and the Reformers soon became a formidable party. By a bond, called the *First Covenant*, signed in 1557, the leaders of the Scottish Reformation bound themselves together under the title of the *Congregation;* by which they agreed to stand by each other in procuring the overthrow of the Roman religion in Scotland and to exert themselves to their utmost to spread the Calvinistic faith and worship in their country, also renouncing the Pope's authority in Scotland and enjoining their followers to use the English Bible and the English Book of Common Prayer. The nobles who signed the First Covenant were called the *Lords of the Congregation.*

Lords of the Congregation.

Mary of Guise and the Lords of the Congregation.

In 1558 Walter Mill, an aged priest of pure life, was burned to death as a heretic at St. Andrews. This cruel act aroused a storm of indignation in Scotland, and the Lords of the Congregation demanded of the regent a reformation of religion according to the principles enunciated in the First Covenant. The queen-regent, Mary of Guise, who was a sister of Francis, Duke of Guise, the deadly enemy of the Huguenots of France, answered the demand of the Lords of the Congregation by summoning some of the Calvinistic preachers to appear before the Privy Council. They prepared to obey her summons, and a strong body of their followers assembled at Perth to accompany and protect them.

Outlawry of Calvinist Preachers.

Alarmed by this exhibition of strength, the queen-regent entreated the Protestants to disperse and promised to withdraw her summons. But, instead of fulfilling her promise, she outlawed the Calvinistic preachers for not appearing before the council. Enraged at this breach of faith, the Scottish Reformers attacked and sacked the churches and monasteries in Perth, May 11, 1559; and similar outbreaks occurred in other towns of Scotland.

Calvinist Outbreaks.

The Scottish Reformers and the French Troops.

The Lords of the Congregation assembled their followers at Perth and made ready for an appeal to arms. The queen-regent took the field against them at the head of a body of French troops, but a struggle was avoided by negotiation. It was agreed that all the questions at issue between the queen-regent and the Reformers should be adjusted by the Scottish Parliament, that both parties should disarm in the meantime and that the French garrison should be withdrawn from Perth.

Rise of the Scottish Reformers against Mary of Guise.

With the duplicity characteristic of the Guises, the queen-regent withdrew the French troops from Perth, but instantly occupied the town with a garrison of Scottish troops hired with French money. The Lords of the Congregation at once flew to arms and occupied Edinburgh and St. Andrews, declared Mary of Guise deposed from the regency, but proclaimed themselves loyal to Francis II. and Mary, the King and Queen of France and Scotland. Not being strong enough to maintain their position without help, the Lords of the Congregation appealed to Queen Elizabeth of England for aid.

The Scottish Reformers Aided by Queen Elizabeth of England.

In answer to the appeal of the Lords of the Congregation, Queen Elizabeth concluded the Treaty of Berwick with them in 1560, by which she agreed to assist them with English troops against the French troops who were sent to aid Mary of Guise in maintaining her authority as queen-regent. An English contingent was promptly sent to the assistance of the Scottish Reformers, and several encounters occurred between the Anglo-Scottish troops and the queen-regent's French auxiliaries. The French were besieged in Leith and were obliged to capitulate; and by the Treaty of Edinburgh, during the same year (1560), it was stipulated that the French troops should retire from Scotland and that in the future no foreigners should hold office in that kingdom without the consent of the Scottish Parliament. The Parliament agreed, on behalf of the King and Queen of France and Scotland, to acknowledge Elizabeth as the lawful Queen of England and to relinquish all pretensions to the English crown, A. D. 1560.

Treaty of Edinburgh.

Triumph of Calvinism in Scotland.

The queen-regent of Scotland died soon after the conclusion of the Treaty of Edinburgh. The Lords of the Congregation then convened the Scottish Parliament, which formally abjured the Pope's authority in Scotland, forbade the saying of mass or being present at it and declared the Geneva Confession of Faith the standard of the Church of Scotland, thus establishing the Calvinistic faith and worship as the state-religion. As there was still a strong Catholic party in Scotland, the Catholic religion could not be entirely suppressed by act of Parliament; but Catholicism gradually died out in that kingdom during a long course of future years.

Return of Queen Mary Stuart.

After the death of her husband, King Francis II. of France, in 1560, Queen Mary Stuart returned to her own native and hereditary Kingdom of Scotland, landing at Leith, August 19, 1561. She was joyfully received by all classes of her subjects, as the death of her royal French husband had freed them of their fear that Scotland would be virtually reduced to the condition of a province of France.

Upon her return to Scotland, Queen Mary was in her nineteenth year and in the bloom of her youth and beauty. She was highly accomplished and her manners were graceful and captivating. As

Her French and Roman Catholic Predilections.

she had been educated in France she was a Scotswoman only in name and blood. She was French in everything else and was a stranger to her own kingdom and subjects. She was in no way fitted to rule so turbulent a nation as the Scots at so critical a period; and, as she was a zealous Roman Catholic, she was the natural antagonist of the great Protestant movement which had just triumphed in Scotland.

Queen Mary and the Scottish Reformers.

Queen Mary's first measures were calculated to reassure her subjects. She bestowed her confidence wholly on the leaders of the Scottish Reformation, seeing that they alone were capable of supporting her government, and she issued a proclamation enjoining all her subjects to conform to the Protestant religion. But for herself she adhered to the Catholic faith, and with difficulty she obtained permission to have mass celebrated in her private chapel. This greatly offended the Calvinistic preachers, who could not "be reconciled to a person polluted with so great an abomination." John Knox and the other Protestant leaders of Scotland undertook to remonstrate with the queen; and, as they found her firm in her religious views, they broke out into coarse and brutal insults even in her presence.

Hume's Remark about John Knox.

Says Hume: "The ringleader in these insults on the queen was John Knox, who possessed an uncontrolled authority in the Church, and even in the civil affairs of the nation, and who triumphed in the contumelious usage of his sovereign. His usual appellation of the queen was Jezebel; and though she endeavored, by the most gracious condescension, to win his favor, all her insinuations could make no impression on his obdurate heart. Mary, whose age, condition and education invited her to liberty and cheerfulness, was curbed in all amusements by the absurd severity of those Reformers; and she found every moment reason to regret her leaving that country from whose manners she had in her early youth received her first impressions."

The Protestant Preachers and the First Book of Discipline.

The Protestant preachers were as arbitrary as the deposed Roman clergy in their notions of ecclesiastical authority. They claimed that the confiscated Church lands belonged rightfully to them, and asserted their right to dictate to the Scottish nation in public as well as in private affairs. They framed a *First Book of Discipline* for the guidance of the Church, and required its adoption. The Scottish nobles finally refused to admit the claims of the Reformed preachers or to accept the First Book of Discipline as law. The confiscated Church lands had been generally distributed, and the Privy Council refused to interfere with the settlement. One-third of what was left was taken to pay the salaries of the clergy, and the remainder went to the crown under certain conditions.

The Catholics were still a strong party in the North of Scotland; and their leader, the Earl of Huntley, refused to obey the laws growing

out of the new state-religion. He was attacked, defeated and killed by the royal forces in 1562. His son was beheaded at Aberdeen, and the power of the Gordons and of the Scottish Roman Catholics was broken.

Defeat and Death of the Earl of Huntley.

All parties in Scotland were anxious for the marriage of Queen Mary. Various matches were suggested to her; but she settled the matter by marrying her cousin, Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, the son of the Earl of Lennox and Margaret Douglas, July 29, 1565. Darnley was created Earl of Ross and Duke of Albany. As he was a rigid Roman Catholic, this marriage was very distasteful to John Knox and the other Scottish Reformers. The Earl of Murray, Queen Mary's illegitimate half-brother, took up arms to oppose the marriage, and was joined in his revolt by some of the other Scottish nobles; but the malcontents were defeated and forced to seek refuge in England.

Queen Mary's Marriage with Lord Darnley.

Rebellion.

Queen Mary found Lord Darnley a weak and contemptible husband, and she soon became tired of him. She had her father's and grandfather's weakness for making favorites and their lack of discretion in the choice of such favorites. David Rizzio, the accomplished Italian musician whom she had made her private secretary, rendered himself obnoxious to the Scottish nobles by encouraging the queen in the severities with which she treated the banished Scottish lords. As these lords determined to get rid of the queen's Italian favorite, they won Darnley over to their side by exciting his jealousy of Rizzio, and the plot was quickly matured. The murder of the queen's Italian favorite by Darnley and his fellow-conspirators took place while he was at supper with her in Holyrood Palace, at Edinburgh, March 9, 1566.

Murder of David Rizzio.

Queen Mary inwardly resolved on revenge, though she dissembled her feelings, appearing reconciled to her husband and promising to pardon the banished Scottish lords. The next day they appeared before her, and she received the Earl of Murray with affection; but, as she was resolved to have more freedom, she fled with Darnley to Dunbar the next night. The Earl of Bothwell quickly assembled a force for her protection, and she was enabled to return to Edinburgh before the end of the month. She at once cited the assassins of Rizzio to appear and answer for their crime, and when they failed to do so they were outlawed. She gave birth to a son in Edinburgh Castle, June 19, 1566.

Queen Mary and Rizzio's Assassins.

Queen Mary's new favorite, James Hepburn, Earl of Bothwell, who had rendered her such good service by his prompt aid to her at Dunbar, was created Lord High Admiral of Scotland and Warden of the Borders, and received the estates of Melrose and Haddington. The queen hated her husband for his share in the assassination of Rizzio, while the Scottish nobles also hated him because he had deserted them after that murder. When he was attacked with small-pox he was re-

Mary and the Earl of Bothwell.

Murder of Lord Darnley.

moved to the house called the Kirk-o'Field, in the suburbs of Edinburgh. The blowing up of this house by gunpowder, by which Darnley perished, on the night of February 10, 1567, was believed to have been perpetrated by the Earl of Bothwell, while Queen Mary was believed to have been accessory to the crime.

Mary's Marriage with the Earl of Bothwell.

The queen gave color to this suspicion by her failure to make any effort to discover the murderers, and by permitting the Earl of Bothwell to browbeat Darnley's father and to intimidate him in his efforts to bring the suspected persons to justice; and, worse than all, she confirmed the suspicions against her by her marriage with the Earl of Bothwell, three months after Darnley's murder, May 15, 1567, the earl having obtained a divorce from his other wife in order to marry the queen.

Her Overthrow, Imprisonment and Abdication.

The Scottish nobles, deeply resenting the queen's criminal conduct, rose in arms against her, and forced her to surrender to them, June 15, 1567. The Earl of Bothwell escaped from the country, and as he became a pirate he was thrown into prison in Denmark, where he became insane, and died ten years later, A. D. 1577. Queen Mary was carried a prisoner to Edinburgh, where she was received by the people with the most insulting demonstrations. Soon afterward she was sent to Lochlevin Castle; and a few days later a number of letters which she was said to have written to the Earl of Bothwell were produced, implicating her in the murder of her second husband. Thereupon the rebellious Scottish nobles compelled Mary to sign an abdication of her crown in favor of her infant son, James VI., A. D. 1567.

James VI., A. D. 1567–1625.

Regency of the Earl of Murray.

James VI. was crowned and anointed King of Scotland at Stirling. His sponsor, the Earl of Morton, took an oath in his behalf to maintain the Calvinistic State Church of Scotland and to root out its enemies. The deposed queen's half-brother, the Earl of Murray, was recalled from France, where he had been ever since the murder of Darnley, and was made regent for his infant nephew, at the dethroned queen's request.

Mary's Escape and Civil War.

A large party of the Scottish nobility, under the leadership of the Hamiltons, refused to acknowledge the authority of the new government and opened negotiations with the captive ex-queen. Several months afterward Mary escaped from Lochlevin Castle and fled to Hamilton, where she was welcomed with enthusiasm by the dissatisfied Scottish nobles, who recognized her as their legitimate sovereign, A. D. 1568. She at once sent a demand to her half-brother, the Earl of Murray, that he should resign the regency and submit to her as his queen. The regent replied to her demand by raising an army to uphold the authority of the infant King James VI.

Mary's Defeat and Flight to England.

After her decisive defeat by her half-brother at Langside, May 13, 1568, Mary rode with all haste to the border and sought refuge in

THE DEATH OF RIZZIO

From the Painting by H. von Angeli

England, where she threw herself upon the generosity of Queen Elizabeth, by whom she was detained a prisoner. The account of Mary's nineteen years' captivity in England, the Catholic plots for her release and her elevation to the English throne, and her final execution, have all been related in the history of England and need not be repeated here.

Her Captivity.

Mary Stuart's captivity in England did not destroy her party in Scotland. Her principal supporters were the Hamiltons and the Earl of Huntley. The Duke of Chatelherault, one of the Hamiltons, was the next heir to the Scottish crown after Mary in case King James VI. should die before her. The fallen queen's party hated the Earl of Murray, and the Hamiltons determined upon his death. As he was riding from Stirling to Edinburgh, he was shot and killed at Bothwelhaugh, by James Hamilton, of that town, February 23, 1570. His death was a misfortune for Scotland, as he had ruled the kingdom firmly and well. The Scottish people gratefully remember him as the "Good Regent."

The Hamiltons and the Earl of Huntley.

Murder of the Earl of Murray.

The murder of the Earl of Murray was followed by a period of anarchy. A border war with England also broke out, and the southern counties of Scotland were ravaged as far as the Clyde. At length the Earl of Lennox, the boy king's paternal grandfather, was chosen regent; but his selection was opposed by a considerable part of the Scottish people, as he was considered too much of an Englishman to be mindful of the real welfare of Scotland. Grange, who had been assigned to the charge of Edinburgh Castle, declared for the ex-queen, whose partisans likewise held possession of Dumbarton Castle, the strongest fortress in Scotland. Crawford of Jordanhill, an officer of the regent, with a handful of men, surprised and took Dumbarton Castle, April 2, 1571. In September, 1571, the regent summoned the Scottish Parliament to meet at Stirling, where the youthful King James VI. was residing. Four hundred of Mary's troops from Edinburgh Castle made a dash into Stirling and took the regent prisoner, September 4, 1571. He was instantly rescued, but was mortally wounded in the struggle and died several hours afterward.

Anarchy and Border War.

Regency of the Earl of Lennox.

Civil War.

Capture and Death of the Earl of Lennox.

The Earl of Mar, Governor of Stirling, succeeded as regent of Scotland. He failed in an effort to take Edinburgh Castle, after which a two months' truce was agreed upon, August 1, 1572. Much blood had been shed in Scotland during this civil war, without any decisive result for either party. During the truce the ex-queen's party received a severe blow in the general horror produced in Scotland by the intelligence of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew, in France.

Regency of the Earl of Mar.

Truce.

The Earl of Mar died in November, 1572; and the Earl of Morton became regent, November 24, 1572—the very day on which John

Regency of the Earl of Morton.

Knox, the great leader of the Reformation in Scotland, died. Knox was a great man, notwithstanding his faults; his most conspicuous characteristics being his fearlessness in speaking what he believed to be the truth. The civil war in Scotland was renewed at the opening of the year 1573. In August of that year Edinburgh Castle surrendered to the regent, who tarnished his triumph by hanging Grange, its gallant defender. The power of the Earl of Morton was vastly strengthened by this success, but he aroused the animosity of some of the most powerful nobles of Scotland by compelling them to restore the crown property which they had seized. The youthful king, under the influence of his favorite, Esmé Stuart, Lord of Aubigny, the nephew of the late regent, the Earl of Lennox, also turned against the Earl of Morton. At length James Stuart of Ochiltree, another favorite of the king, accused the Earl of Morton before the council of having been an accomplice in the murder of Lord Darnley; and upon this charge the regent was tried, condemned and beheaded at Edinburgh.

Civil War Renewed.

Execution of the Earl of Morton.

James VI. and His Stuart Favorites.

Young King James VI. then took the government of Scotland into his own hands; but he was wholly under the influence of his favorites—James Stuart of Ochiltree, whom he created Earl of Arran, and Esmé Stuart, Lord of Aubigny, whom he made Duke of Lennox and Governor of Dumbarton Castle. The royal favor enjoyed by these two Stuarts excited the jealousy of the older Scottish nobles, who, under the leadership of the Earl of Gowrie, seized the boy king and held him a prisoner in Ruthven Castle. They forced him to banish the Duke of Lennox from the kingdom and administered the government in his name. They also compelled him to declare that in these proceedings he acted of his own free will and without restraint or compulsion.

His Imprisonment by Revolted Nobles.

His Escape and Execution of the Earl of Gowrie.

Young King James VI. remained in the power of the Ruthven lords almost a year, until he escaped to St. Andrews, where his partisans rallied to his support in such numbers that the Ruthven lords were obliged to yield. The youthful king at first acted with moderation; but at length the Earl of Arran, who had returned to power, caused the Earl of Gowrie to be arrested, tried and executed on a charge of plotting against the young king.

Overthrow of the Earl of Arran.

Alliance with England.

Some time afterward the Earl of Arran himself was accused of inciting an affray on the border in which Lord Russell, an Englishman, was killed, and was ordered to retire from court. The Scottish nobles who were jealous of the Earl of Arran then appeared at Stirling, where the youthful king was residing, with a body of eight thousand troops, and forced James VI. to summon a Parliament, which restored to the Earl of Gowrie's children the lands and honors forfeited by his treason, deprived the Earl of Arran of all his possessions and dignities, and entered into an alliance with England, A. D. 1585.

Execution of Queen Mary in England.

As we have related in the history of England, Mary Stuart, the captive ex-Queen of Scotland, was beheaded at Fotheringay Castle, in England, February 8, 1587, by order of Queen Elizabeth. King James VI. made a slight display of grief and resentment at his mother's execution, but allowed it to pass without further notice. In 1589 he married Anne, daughter of King Frederick II. of Denmark, and the new queen received the Orkney and Shetland Isles as her dowry.

Marriage of James VI.

Scotland Alarmed about the Spanish Armada.

Scotland was greatly alarmed by the sailing of the Spanish Armada for the invasion of England in 1588, and took measures to prevent the reëstablishment of Roman Catholicism within its borders in case of the Spanish conquest of England. The Scottish nobles and gentry signed the *Second Covenant*.

Presbyterian Church Government in Scotland.

Scotland did not for several years recover from the excitement caused by the Spanish Armada, and in 1592 the Scottish Parliament passed an act abolishing Episcopacy in Scotland and substituting the Presbyterian form of Church government instead. The Scottish Church was thenceforth to be under the control of presbyters and synods, under the authority of a general assembly consisting of clergymen and lay elders from the several presbyteries. This general assembly was to meet once a year at Edinburgh under the presidency of the king or his commissioner.

Catholic Plot and Civil War.

In the same year a plot of the Catholic nobles of Scotland was detected. The conspirators intended to invite King Philip II. of Spain to reëstablish the Roman Catholic religion in Scotland, and promised to aid him with all their resources. The Marquis of Argyle was ordered in the name of King James VI. to begin a civil war against the Earl of Huntley, one of the leaders of the Catholic conspiracy. In 1597, after a civil war of two years, the Earls of Huntley and Errol, the two most prominent leaders of the Catholic plot, made their peace with the king by publicly abjuring Roman Catholicism and embracing Presbyterianism.

Catholic Submission.

James VI. and the Presbyterian Preachers.

King James VI. had considerable trouble with the Presbyterian preachers, who arrogantly claimed the right to dictate even to the king. This contest caused a stubborn riot at Edinburgh, compelling the king to flee to Linlithgow. Thereupon he threatened to remove the courts of justice from Edinburgh, thus bringing the people of that city to their senses. They yielded, and the king returned to the capital, while the Presbyterian preachers who has caused the trouble fled into England.

James VI Becomes James I. of England

Upon the death of Queen Elizabeth of England, March 24, 1603, King James VI. of Scotland was declared her successor on the English throne. James VI. at once set out for his new kingdom, and made his formal entry into London, May 6, 1603; and for the remaining twenty-

two years of his life he was King of both Scotland and England, residing in his new kingdom during that period under the title of James I., and being represented in Scotland by a Lord High Commissioner. Thenceforth the crowns of Scotland and England were united, though each kingdom had its own Parliament and was independent of the other in everything else until 1707.

Union of Crowns.

The union of the crowns of Scotland and England ended the savage warfare that had desolated the border for centuries. The border laws of both kingdoms were repealed, and it was agreed that all subjects of either kingdom born after the union should be citizens of the other also and have the right to inherit and hold property in the other. Scotland thus gave a king to England, instead of receiving one from that kingdom. James VI. was freed from his dependence upon the turbulent Scottish lords and was enabled to govern them with a stronger hand, as he could bring the resources of rich and powerful England to his aid in maintaining his authority in poor and weak Scotland.

End of Border Wars and Border Laws.

Common Citizenship.

## SECTION XII.—PHILIP II. OF SPAIN (1556–1598), AND HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.

Philip II. of Spain, A. D. 1556–1598.

We have seen that upon the abdication of the Emperor Charles V., in 1555 and 1556, his son Philip II. succeeded him in the sovereignty of Spain, Naples, Sicily, Milan and the Netherlands; while his brother Ferdinand I., Archduke of Austria and King of Hungary and Bohemia, succeeded him on the German imperial throne; thus dividing the illustrious Hapsburg dynasty into a Spanish and an Austrian branch.

Emperor Ferdinand I., A. D. 1556–1564.

The accession of the Emperor Ferdinand I. was welcomed by the German princes and recognized by every European sovereign except Pope Paul IV., who declared that he only could sanction the abdication of Emperors, as he alone had the power to crown and depose them. This Pope therefore ordered Ferdinand I. to resign the imperial scepter, do penance for his presumption and submissively await the pleasure of St. Peter's successor. Such claims, which Hildebrand and Innocent III. had been so able to enforce three and four centuries before, were of no force in the greater part of Christendom when they fell from the lips of Paul IV.; and thenceforth the Emperors dispensed with the ceremony of being crowned by the Pope.

Ferdinand I. and Pope Paul IV.

In pursuance of his unrelenting hostility toward the ex-Emperor Charles V. and of his son Philip II. of Spain and the Netherlands, Pope Paul IV. persuaded King Henry II. of France to break his

Philip II. and Pope Paul IV.

solemn engagements with Charles V. in the Truce of Vaucelles in 1556. The Pope himself imprisoned the Spanish ambassador in Rome and even laid Spain under an interdict. Philip II., whose religious scruples were more intense than those of Paul IV., deeply felt the Pope's severity and wearied all his theologians for arguments to justify him in resisting the Pope; while Paul IV. was even forming an alliance with Sultan Solyman the Magnificent.

**Spanish and French Armies in the Campagna.**

At length the Spanish army under the Duke of Alva overran the Campagna and approached the gates of Rome; and, though reverence forbade him to enter that holy city in arms, no scruple of humanity restrained him from massacring the innocent inhabitants of the captured villages. During the next winter a large French army under Francis, Duke of Guise, entered Italy to oppose the Spanish force under the Duke of Alva. The Duke of Guise marched to Rome; and, in the interest of his brother, the Cardinal of Lorraine, he persuaded Pope Paul IV. to create ten new cardinals.

**Their Indecisive Operations.**

The French and Spanish armies advanced and retreated, marched and countermarched, to the great discomfort of the poor people whose fields were wasted and whose homes were desecrated by the brutal soldiery, with no decisive result for either the French or Spanish king. At length the Duke of Guise was recalled to France to defend that kingdom against Spanish invasion from the Netherlands; and Pope Paul IV. dismissed him with the following benediction: "Begone, then! you have done little for your king, less for your Church, nothing for your own honor!"

**Peace between Philip II and the Pope.**

Peace was now necessary to the Pope, and the King of Spain was glad to desist from what he believed to be an impious warfare. The Duke of Alva, in his own name and in the name of Philip II., did penance for the crime of invading the Pope's dominions, and received absolution therefor from Paul IV. The territories belonging to Florence and Siena were united to form the Grand-duchy of Tuscany, which was ultimately bestowed upon the Medici, and remained in the possession of that illustrious Florentine family until its extinction in 1737.

**English Aid to Philip II.**

Philip II. mustered an army of fifty thousand men in the Netherlands, among whom were ten thousand English troops which his wife, Queen Mary of England, had sent him in spite of the opposition of her Parliament and the murmurs of her subjects. With these forces, the Duke of Savoy defeated the French in the battle of St. Quentin, almost annihilating their army. After Philip II. had joined the Duke of Savoy, the victorious Spaniards besieged St. Quentin for three weeks, and finally took the town after a gallant defense by the little French garrison under Admiral Coligni.

**Battle of St. Quentin**

Operations in the Netherlands.

Ham. Noyon and Chauni were also taken by the Spaniards, but in the meantime the tide of victory had turned in favor of the French. The English allies of the Spaniards, never cordial, insisted on going home; while the German auxiliaries mutinied for want of pay. While the ex-Emperor Charles V., in his retirement at San Yuste, in the West of Spain, was calculating that his son must be in Paris, Philip II. had actually retired to Brussels, disbanded a portion of his army and sent the remainder into winter-quarters.

French Recovery of Calais from the English.

It was in this emergency that the Duke of Guise returned from Italy and was invested by the King of France with extraordinary powers. After making a feigned movement toward Luxemburg, he suddenly appeared before Calais with his entire army. This last English stronghold in France was negligently guarded, as the English believed that the overflow of the surrounding marshes in winter constituted an effectual defense. The French took the two forts in the first day's attack, and carried the town itself by assault after three bombardments, January 8, 1558. The capture of Guines followed two weeks later, and thus the English lost their last foothold in France after two centuries' possession. The universal discontent in England on account of this unnecessary war was heightened into indignation at this unexpected loss, and Queen Mary's death was hastened by remorse and disappointment.

Indignation in England.

Peace of Cateau-Cambresis.

The Guises ruled France during the captivity of the Constable Montmorenci, who had been taken prisoner by the Spaniards at St. Quentin. They now permitted the captive Constable to open negotiations with his Spanish captors; and two treaties were signed at Cateau-Cambresis, one between France and Spain, and the other between France, England and Scotland, April, 1559.

Its Terms.

By the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis both Spain and France restored the conquests which their respective armies had made during the war; but France retained the bishoprics of Metz, Toul and Verdun, which King Henry II. had wrested from Germany during his alliance with the Protestant German princes in their war with the Emperor Charles V. As Queen Mary of England, the wife of Philip II. of Spain, had died during the conferences for peace, the Spanish king engaged to marry Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of King Henry II. of France; while the Duke of Savoy, who was reinstated in his paternal inheritance, espoused the French king's sister Margaret.

Europe's Two Religious Parties.

The Peace of Cateau-Cambresis, in April, 1559, derives its chief importance from the fact that it marked a new division of the European powers, when national jealousies gave place to religious animosity. The Kings of Spain and France ended their long contest, so that both might be free to exterminate Protestantism in their respective do-

minions; while England, under Queen Elizabeth, assumed her place at the head of the Protestant states and became the protectress of religious change in all European nations. Spain became the champion of Roman Catholicism, and every European sovereign who wished to enforce orthodoxy among his subjects looked to Philip II. for aid. Spain was undoubtedly the greatest power in Europe during this period, in consequence of her invincible infantry and her reputed wealth, drawn from her vast American possessions; but unwise and unjust restrictions on commerce had already cast a blight on her prosperity, and her decline had already commenced, though it was as yet unnoticed.

Elizabeth and Philip II.

Spain's Leadership.

Pope Paul IV., the old enemy of Philip II. and the Emperor Ferdinand I., surprised the world by his sudden plans for reform during the last year of his life. He dismissed his nephews, who had made his court scandalous by their robberies, murders and midnight riots. He also introduced order and economy into his finances; and, to protect his Ministers from injustice, he caused a chest to be put in a public place, with an opening into which every man might cast his petitions or complaints, the Pope having the only key to the chest. But the Pope's reforms were almost harder to endure than his former extravagance; as his zeal took the direction of persecution, and he passed his last days in listening to the stories of the basest informers and in ordering arrests. Upon the death of Paul IV., in August, 1559, the Roman people immediately broke open the prisons and released the captives, threw down his statue and cast its head with its triple crown into the Tiber.

Reforms of Pope Paul IV.

His Persecutions.

Gian Angelo Medecino, who was then elected Pope by the conclave of cardinals and assumed the title of Pius IV., was an active old man, affable in manners and amiable in temper, himself no persecutor, but permitting the Inquisitors to proceed without molestation in their merciless task. His only near relative, his nephew, Charles Borromeo, was a clear and striking contrast to the nephews of other Popes who made *nepotism* notorious. After being appointed Archbishop of Milan, Charles Borromeo distinguished himself by the self-denying purity of his life, his frequent and laborious visits to the humblest and remotest mountain recesses of his diocese, and his ministrations to the poor during a frightful visitation of the plague. Pope Pius IV., unlike his predecessor, Paul IV., was a friend of both the Austrian and Spanish Hapsburgs; and he therefore recognized Ferdinand I. as Emperor, and consented to reconvene the Council of Trent in 1562.

Pope Pius IV.

His Nepotism.

His Friendship for Philip II. and Ferdinand I.

As we have seen, the Council of Trent closed its last session December 4, 1563; after having excluded half of Christendom from the communion of the Church, and adopted reformatory measures which gave

Council of Trent.

new vigor to the Roman Catholic Church and apparently checked the Protestant movement.

Emperor Maximilian II. A. D. 1564-1576.

The Emperor Ferdinand I., the paternal uncle of Philip II. of Spain, died in July, 1564, after having reigned over the Germano-Roman Empire but eight years. His son, MAXIMILIAN II., had already been crowned King of Germany, as well of Hungary and Bohemia; and after his father's death he succeeded peaceably to the imperial crown. The new Emperor's justice and liberality long delayed the great war of religion which in the next century deluged Germany with blood for thirty years.

Pope Pius V.

Pope Pius IV. died in 1565; and the Grand Inquisitor Ghislieri, who was then elected Pope by the conclave of cardinals, assumed the title of Pius V. The new Pope's austere piety and unyielding will well qualified him to continue the reformation of the Roman Catholic Church. Convinced of the necessity of strenuous measures, he supported the vigorous suppression of heresy everywhere. He caused new prisons to be built to confine the multitudes of victims, and the fires of the Inquisition or the executioner's ax sent martyrs to their doom daily. He sent troops and money into France, with orders for the instant death of all heretics who could be taken. In 1570 he excommunicated Queen Elizabeth of England and absolved her subjects from their allegiance to her.

His Persecutions.

The Reformation in Spain.

In the meantime Philip II. had been recalled into Spain by the progress of the Reformation in that kingdom. The middle and higher classes of Spaniards had Bibles in the Castilian dialect of the Spanish language, and the Lutheran doctrines had been introduced into the country in consequence of the constant intercourse with Germany during the reign of Charles V., when Spain and Germany had the same sovereign.

The Inquisition and the Auto da fe.

Philip II., who was of a gloomy and misanthropic disposition, stern, haughty and cruel, and moreover a most earnest Roman Catholic, was greatly alarmed by these signs of heresy in Spain; and he at once proceeded to exterminate the evil by the fires of the Inquisition, which had formerly been lit only for Jews and Moors. The burning of Protestants, called the *auto de fe*, "act of faith," became a common occurrence. Philip II. was successful in completely suppressing the spirit of inquiry and religious free thought in Spain, and banishing the Bible and the Protestant doctrines from his kingdom, by a most cruel persecution. But his measures struck a death-blow to the prosperity of Spain, and threw that country back into the barbarism from which it has not yet fully emerged, as is proven by the fact that Spain had more printing-presses in the middle of the sixteenth century than in the middle of the nineteenth.

Protestantism Stamped Out in Spain.

Revolt of the Netherlands.

The attempt of Philip II. to introduce the Inquisition into the Netherlands led to his loss of those fair provinces, which succeeded in establishing their independence after a bloody struggle of forty years, when the Dutch Republic became one of the independent powers of Europe. The account of this interesting struggle, which was one of the most important events of modern times, will be given in full in a separate section.

Philip's Edict against the Moors of Spain.

Philip II. also revived his father's severities against the Moriscoes, or nominally Christian Moors of Spain, who still occupied the region of the Alpujarras. Though they were nominally Christians, they secretly maintained their old Mohammedan faith. In 1556 Philip II. issued an edict forbidding them to use their native language, to bestow Moorish names on their offspring or to indulge in any of their most innocent national customs, and requiring them to send all their children between the ages of three and fifteen to Spanish schools.

Their Bloody Revolt.

Driven to desperation in 1568, the Moriscoes sprang to arms, massacred the Christian inhabitants of that region with the most barbarous cruelty, besought aid from the Turkish Sultan and from their Moorish brethren in Africa, and chose a descendant of the Ommíyad Khalifs of Cordova for their sovereign. After a furious struggle of three years, marked with all the violence of vengeance on the one side and desperation on the other, the revolt was crushed in 1571. The fugitive Moriscoes were hunted among their mountains like wild beasts, and their spirit was broken by a series of inhuman massacres, until the last symptoms of revolt were extinguished. The Moriscoes were almost exterminated in the struggle which the Spanish king's tyrannical measures had provoked.

Its Bloody Suppression.

Fruitless Siege of Malta by Sultan Solyman the Magnificent.

In the meantime the Turks under Sultan Solyman the Magnificent were renewing their aggressions upon the nations of Christendom. In 1565 Solyman besieged the island of Malta, which had belonged to the Knights of St. John ever since Solyman had wrested Rhodes from them in 1522. The defense of Malta by the Knights of St. John in 1565 was one of the most valiant operations recorded in history. The Turks took the fort of St. Elmo; but that of St. Michael, under the command of the Grand Master La Valette, held out until Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, exhausted by a series of desperate assaults, relinquished the enterprise and sailed away to Constantinople in a rage. All the sovereigns of Christendom vied with each other in bestowing praises and gifts upon the Grand Master; and Valetta, the new capital of Malta, has borne his name ever since.

The next year, 1566, Sultan Solyman the Magnificent captured the far more valuable Greek island of Chios, the ancient Scio. The same year he renewed his invasion of Hungary, under pretense of supporting

His New Invasion of Hungary and His Death.

the claims of John Sigismund, son of John Zapolya, against the Emperor Maximilian II. Solyman died while besieging the fortress of Szigeth, September, 1566; but his troops took the fortress after a siege rendered memorable by the heroic death of the Hungarian commandant, who, when the fortress was no longer tenable, rushed into the ranks of the Janizaries with six hundred followers and fell pierced with bullets and arrows. The victorious Turks forced their way into the citadel and demanded of a page where his master's treasures were concealed. The young Hungarian replied: "My master possessed one hundred thousand ducats and a thousand golden cups, that are all destroyed; but he leaves you treasures of powder which will instantly burst beneath your feet." No sooner were these words uttered than the magazine exploded and five thousand Turks perished.

Siege and Capture of Szigeth by the Turks.

Sultan Selim II., A. D. 1566–1574.

Solyman's two elder sons had been put to death through the intrigues of his Russian wife, Roxolana, who thus prepared the way for the accession of her own son, SELIM II. The new Sultan was weak and profligate, and only secured the allegiance of the Janizaries by largely increasing the donative, which they demanded at every change of Sultans, as did the Prætorian Guards of Rome at the change of Emperors.

Turkish Invasion of Cyprus.

After making a truce with the Emperor Maximilian II., Sultan Selim II. directed his attention to the conquest of the island of Cyprus, which had been a dependency of the Venetian Republic for eighty years; but Venetian power was now on the decline, while the severity of its rule caused the Cypriots to regard the Turks as deliverers. In the summer of 1570 a Turkish army of fifty thousand men landed in Cyprus, whereupon the Venetians retired into the towns of Nicosia and Famagusta. The Turks took Nicosia in about two months and captured Famagusta in August, 1571.

Holy League against the Turks.

Pope Pius V., who was always an ardent foe of the Moslem power, was now aroused to the most strenuous exertions; and he united with King Philip II. of Spain and the Republic of Venice in a *Holy League* against the Ottoman power. The Holy League soon had a fleet of three hundred vessels in the Mediterranean. The command of this allied Christian fleet was assigned to Don John of Austria, the half-brother of Philip II. of Spain and the most accomplished knight of his time.

Battle of Lepanto.

The Turkish fleet, which was larger than that of the Christian powers, had taken its position in the Gulf of Lepanto when the allied fleet appeared. The conflict which ensued, September 5, 1571, was one of the most memorable sea-fights of modern times. The Turks were thoroughly defeated with the loss of two hundred and twenty-four ships and thirty thousand men; and the fame of their invincible bravery and

Turkish Power Broken.

fortune, which had attained its zenith during the brilliant career of Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, ceased to be a terror to the nations of Christendom.

**Turkish Decline.**

The Ottoman Empire began its decline from the day of the battle of Lepanto, in 1571. The triumphant Christians might have liberated Greece from the Ottoman yoke had they been more closely united and thus been enabled to follow up their great victory; but their forces were divided by rival interests, and the death of Pope Pius V. interrupted their operations for a time. In 1573 Venice made a separate peace with the Ottoman Porte, ceding Cyprus and even consenting to pay an annual tribute. Sultan Selim II. died in 1574, his reign being signalized by the beginning of that series of contests between Turkey and Russia for the possession of the Black Sea which has not yet been ended.

**Christendom's Dissensions.**

**Pope Gregory XIII.**

Pope Gregory XIII., who succeeded Pius V. in May, 1572, was the author of the *New Style* of the calendar. The calendar had fallen into confusion, and Gregory XIII. rectified it by passing at once from the 18th of February to the 1st of March. The New Style of the calendar was only adopted gradually by the nations of Europe; and was not adopted in Great Britain and her dominions until 1752, on account of feelings of prejudice toward the Head of the Roman Catholic Church.

**His New Style Calendar.**

**Emperor Maximilian II. and His Religious Toleration.**

The Emperor Maximilian II. was the first of the European sovereigns who recognized the duty of universal toleration. He relaxed all religious despotism in his hereditary dominions, Austria and Bohemia; though his policy was frustrated in some measure by his near connection with the Spanish branch of his dynasty, he having married Mary, a sister of King Philip II., whose fourth wife was a daughter of Maximilian II. The Empress Mary was a devoted adherent of the Jesuits, but the Emperor made an inflexible resistance to the arts of that famous order. By a treaty with John Sigismund of Hungary, Maximilian II. secured the whole of that kingdom, except Transylvania; but he died in 1576, at the age of forty-nine, and was succeeded as Emperor by his son Rudolf II., who had already become King of Germany, Hungary and Bohemia.

**Emperor Rudolf II., A. D. 1576–1612.**

**King Sebastian of Portugal.**

King Sebastian of Portugal, whose youthful mind had been instilled by Jesuits with romantic dreams of conquest over Moslems, led an expedition against the Moors of Africa in 1574, when he was twenty years of age; but little was accomplished in this first attempt. In 1578 King Sebastian led a second expedition into Africa to aid the fugitive Moorish king, Muley Mohammed, who had been driven from the throne of Morocco by his uncle; but Sebastian was defeated and killed in the battle of Alcazarquivir, August 4, 1578, and his army

**His Defeat and Death by the Moors in Africa.**

was almost annihilated, most of the nobles and prelates of Portugal perishing.

**Portugal under Henry and Dom Antonio.**

Sebastian was succeeded on the throne of Portugal by his uncle, Cardinal Henry of Braganza, who died in 1580, after a reign of only two years; whereupon several pretenders appeared to claim the Portuguese crown. Dom Antonio, Henry's brother, was crowned at Lisbon by the Portuguese party, in June, 1580.

**Spanish Conquest of Portugal by the Duke of Alva.**

The most powerful of the rival claimants for the vacant throne of Portugal was King Philip II. of Spain, who sent an army of twenty-four thousand Spanish and Italian veterans under the Duke of Alva into Portugal a few months after Henry's death; and Dom Antonio was defeated and wounded in the battle of Alcantara, and fled into France a few months later. The Duke of Alva set up a reign of terror in Portugal, similar to that which he had conducted in the Netherlands; but his victims in this instance were monks, not heretics. After the Duke of Alva had thus effected the conquest of Portugal, Philip II. entered the country to receive the homage of the Portuguese Estates, and devoted two years to arranging the affairs of the conquered kingdom. The union of Portugal with Spain lasted sixty years (A. D. 1580–1640).

**Spain's Great Power and Dominions.**

The other powers of Europe had been too much absorbed in their own affairs to interfere with the aggressions of Philip II. France and England suddenly became conscious of the growth of the Spanish dominion, not only in the Iberian peninsula, but also over Portugal's rich and undeveloped possessions in Brazil, Africa and Southern and Eastern Asia; while the Philippine Islands, in the Pacific Ocean, east of Asia, which derived their name from Philip II., had been settled in 1564 by a Spanish colony from Mexico.

**French Defeat by the Spaniards in the Azores.**

France sent two naval expeditions against the Azores, those islands having declared for Dom Antonio. The Azores were of the greatest importance as a refitting and watering station for vessels sailing to the East or West Indies. The French and Spanish fleets fought a fierce conflict for the possession of those islands, ending in the destruction of the French fleet and all the French prisoners being put to death as pirates; thus establishing the power of Philip II. firmly in the islands.

**Pope Sixtus V.**

Pope Gregory XIII. died in 1585 and was succeeded by Sixtus V., one of the greatest of the Popes and the most remarkable prince of the Church during the whole century of the Reformation. He had risen from the condition of a poor shepherd boy to be a Franciscan monk, then Inquisitor, then cardinal, and finally Pope. He was a man of strong and imperious nature and maintained the discipline of the Church with inexorable severity. He sought to restore to the

His Able and Stern Rule.

Chair of St. Peter its former splendor, and fixed the number of cardinals at seventy, in memory of the elders who aided Moses with their counsels. He improved the water supply of Rome, adorned the city with new edifices, drew the gigantic works of antiquity from their rubbish, and exterminated the banditti who had infested the Papal States during the inefficient pontificate of his predecessor. He died in 1590.

Erection of the Escurial at Madrid.

Philip II. adorned Spain with splendid edifices, among which was the famous palace of the *Escurial*, the grandest monument of his reign. This magnificent palace was built in honor of St. Lawrence, to whom Philip II. ascribed his victory over the French at St. Quentin. St. Lawrence was martyred by being broiled on a gridiron, and the ground-plan of the Escurial was made in imitation of the bars and handle of this implement. This elegant palace contained the mausoleum of the Spanish kings.

Ambitious Schemes of Philip II. Foiled.

The gloomy and misanthropic Philip II., shutting himself up in the Escurial, planned the extermination of Protestantism and the establishment of a powerful Roman Catholic empire in Western Europe under the supremacy of Spain; but the destruction of the Invincible Armada which he sent against England in 1588, and the gallant resistance of the Netherlanders to his tyranny, thwarted his schemes.

Emperor Rudolf II and His Catholic Bigotry.

Few events had transpired in Germany since the accession of the Emperor Rudolf II., in 1576. His Spanish education and the continued influence of the Jesuits induced him to expel all Lutherans from his hereditary dominions, Austria and Bohemia; and there was a strong Catholic reaction in Austria and Bavaria. The favorite studies of Rudolf II. were alchemy and astrology. His taste for astrology was of some service, as it led him to encourage the great astronomers, Kepler and Tycho Brahe, who were successively intrusted with the superintendence of his observatory at Prague.

Kepler and Tycho Brahe.

Conversion of the Archbishop-Elector of Cologne and His Deposition.

A singular circumstance, which promised to extend Protestantism in Germany, actually strengthened the power of the Roman Catholic Church. The Archbishop-Elector of Cologne, desiring to marry the beautiful Agnes von Mansfeld, renounced his allegiance to the Roman Church and openly adopted Lutheranism. He intended to secularize his province, as the Grand Master of the Teutonic Knights had done; but Prince Ernest of Bavaria, his former competitor for the archbishopric, was elected his successor. The Protestant German princes held aloof, and the deposed Archbishop-Elector passed the remainder of his life in retirement at Strassburg. Thenceforth for almost two centuries the Archbishop-Electors of Cologne were members of the Electoral dynasty of Bavaria, the House of Wittelsbach.

The German and Ottoman Empires became involved in another war in 1593, commencing with the defeat of the Turkish governor of

War between the German and Ottoman Empires.

Bosnia near Sissek, in June of that year. Sultan AMURATH III., who had succeeded Selim II. in 1574, immediately raised a large Turkish army, which captured Vesprim, but was afterward defeated by the Austrians. The next year, 1594, the principalities of Moldavia, Wallachia and Transylvania revolted from the Sultan and formed an alliance with the Emperor Rudolf II. Struck with dismay, Sultan Amurath III. sent to Damascus for the holy standard which was supposed to insure victory over the enemies of Islam; but Amurath III. died in January, 1595, without having experienced its miraculous help.

Sultan Amurath III., A. D. 1574–1595.

Sultan Mohammed III., A. D. 1595–1603.

Sultan MOHAMMED III., the son and successor of Amurath III., secured his throne with the usual Turkish barbarity by murdering his nineteen brothers. The campaign of 1595 was disastrous to the Turks, as the Austrian army under Count Mansfeld took the important town of Gran and received the submission of the towns of Wissegrad and Waitzen.

Battle of Keresztes.

The next year, 1596, Sultan Mohammed III. took the field in person, captured Erlau, in the North of Hungary, and defeated the Christians with a loss of fifty thousand men and one hundred cannon in a three days' battle at Keresztes. Vienna was seized with consternation, which spread throughout Europe; but as the Turks neglected to follow up their great victory they reaped no advantages therefrom.

Peace of Sitvatorok.

The war lasted ten years longer, and was ended by the Peace of Sitvatorok, January 1, 1607, which showed a great abatement in the pretensions of the Turks, whose power had begun to decline. The Sultan recognized the Emperor Rudolf II. with his full imperial titles instead of slightly alluding to him as "King of Vienna," and relieved him of the degrading annual tribute hitherto exacted by the Ottoman Porte, in consideration of a large immediate payment; while the frontiers of the two empires remained almost as they had been in 1597.

Death of Philip II. of Spain.

Philip II. of Spain died September 13, 1598, after a disastrous reign of forty-two years, which was the grave of Spain's greatness. No sovereign ever ascended a throne with more magnificent prospects.

His Disastrous Reign.

Had his wisdom and justice been equal to his diligence his vast inheritance would have made him by far the greatest monarch in Christendom. But he crushed Spain, ruined Portugal, lost the Northern Netherlands and drained the Southern Netherlands of their prosperity; and, although the treasures of Spanish America flowed into his coffers, he died a bankrupt. His eldest son, Don Carlos, a youth of unhappy disposition, became insane through his father's severity and died in imprisonment.

Philip III., A. D. 1598–1621.

PHILIP III., the youngest and only surviving son of Philip II., succeeded his father as sovereign of Spain, Portugal, Naples, Sicily, Milan and Spanish America. The proud monarchy which under the father

of Philip II. had held the balance of power in Christendom, and had been the leading Christian power, rapidly declined under Philip's insignificant successor. **Spain's Decline.**

## SECTION XIII.—PHILIP II. OF SPAIN AND RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC (A. D. 1566–1648).

**The Netherlands.**

At the time of the accession of Philip II. to the sovereignty of Spain, Naples, Sicily, Milan and the Netherlands, in 1555, the Netherlands comprised seventeen provinces—the four duchies of Brabant, Guelders, Luxemburg and Limburg; the seven counties of Artois, Flanders, Hainault, Namur, Zutphen, Holland and Zealand; the five baronies of Mechlin, Utrecht, Friesland, Overyssel and Groningen, and the margravate of Antwerp. These seventeen small but populous provinces contained over two hundred walled cities, one hundred and fifty chartered towns, six thousand three hundred small towns and villages, sixty strong fortresses and a large number of castles, hamlets and farms.

**Their Three Languages.**

The seventeen provinces differed from each other in language, customs and laws. A corrupt dialect of French was spoken in the four Walloon provinces which bordered on France. Flemish was spoken in the central provinces, and Dutch in the northern—both languages being derived from the German. But all the provinces were united by a common tie of industry and interest, and by their allegiance to the same sovereign, the King of Spain; while they also had a common legislative assembly, called the *States-General*, which convened at irregular intervals.

**The King of Spain and the States-General.**

**Their Prosperity and Industry.**

The Netherlands were the most prosperous portion of Europe, and their population was the most industrious and enlightened, it being a rare exception to find even a peasant among them who was unable to read and write. Agriculture was carried on to a high degree of perfection, and multitudes of skillful and industrious artisans were employed in manufactures; while the cities of Antwerp, Amsterdam and Rotterdam were the chief commercial centers of Europe.

**Their Political Freedom.**

The people of the Netherlands, or Low Countries, had long been among the freest in Europe; and among their chartered rights and liberties were the consent of their own Estates in the States-General to taxation, an independent judicature and the exclusion of Spanish troops and officials. These rights had been occasionally infringed during the reign of Charles V.; but hostilities were prevented by the love of the great Emperor for the Netherlanders, among whom he had been born. Philip II., on the contrary, was a haughty Spaniard, who looked upon the Netherlands as an inferior country, and who occasionally violated their hereditary privileges.

**Charles V. and Philip II.**

Progress of the Reformation in the Netherlands.

It was among these free and intelligent people that the doctrines of the Reformation had met with an early and favorable reception and had obtained many adherents. This state of things gave great annoyance to the Emperor Charles V., and he endeavored by eleven successive edicts to check the growth of Protestantism. As his edicts failed, he finally introduced the Inquisition into the Netherlands, but greatly restricted its powers and sought to deprive it of many of the cruel features which had marked its course in Spain. Nevertheless, it was impossible to change the character of that infamous tribunal, and during the reign of Charles V. several thousand Protestant Netherlanders died the deaths of martyrs by its orders.

Regency of Margaret of Parma.

When Philip II., in 1559, left the Netherlands for Spain he assigned the regency of those fair provinces to his half-sister Margaret, Duchess of Parma. Her Council was composed of Granvelle, Bishop of Arras—afterward Archbishop of Mechlin and cardinal; Viglius, an experienced lawyer and statesman, and Count Barlaimont, an honest and loyal Flemish nobleman.

William, Prince of Orange.

The most important man in the Netherlands was William, Prince of Orange, a friend and favorite of the Emperor Charles V. and a Catholic, but then only known for his vast wealth and his powerful connections. He was a member of the famous family known as the House of Nassau, which had been of princely rank in Germany for five centuries and had given one Emperor, and which was older in the Netherlands than the Houses of Hapsburg and Burgundy, to both of which Philip II. belonged.

His Principality.

The House of Nassau had lost the principality of Orange during the wars between the Emperor Charles V. and Francis I. of France, but that principality was restored to William by the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis, in April, 1559. William was a hostage in Paris before the conclusion of that peace, and King Henry II. of France then and there confidentially revealed to him the secret agreement between himself and King Philip II. of Spain for the extirpation of heresy in their respective dominions. Although William of Orange was then a Roman Catholic, his just soul revolted from such a plot, and he was thus opportunely put on his guard.

Secret Treaty for the Extirpation of Heresy.

Count Egmont's Mission to Spain.

The first step which alarmed the more liberal party in the Netherlands after the accession of Philip II. was the creation of many new bishoprics. Count Egmont, a highly distinguished Flemish nobleman, also a Roman Catholic, was sent into Spain to inform Philip II. of the growing discontents of the Netherlanders and to ask redress. But Count Egmont was misled by the king's flatteries and gifts, and he returned to his anxious friends with extravagant views of the good intentions of Philip II.

PHILIP II RECEIVING A DEPUTATION FROM THE NETHERLANDS

From the Painting by S. Arcos

Soon afterward the King of Spain ordered the Inquisition in the Netherlands to proceed without delay; declaring that he would rather lose a hundred thousand lives, were they all his own, than to tolerate the slightest deviation from the Catholic standards of faith. At the same time the laws against heresy were made so severe that reading the Bible and praying in one's own house were punishable with death. Philip's order of "death to heretics" caused thousands of Netherlanders to flee from the country. Thirty thousand Flemings settled in England, and their capital and skill in fine manufactures contributed to the growing prosperity of that country.

**The Inquisition and Persecution in the Netherlands.**

The Prince of Orange, though a Catholic and then governor of Holland and Zealand, refused to consent to the burning of his Protestant subjects, as did also the Catholic governors of several other Netherland provinces. Two thousand persons of all sects and parties in the Netherlands now united for mutual defense. They denounced the Inquisition, but reasserted their loyalty to King Philip II. and their determination to keep down all tumult and rebellion. They presented a list of demands to the regent, who became alarmed by the number and powerful array of her petitioners, but she was reassured when one of her Councilors branded the petitioners as "only a pack of beggars." The petitioners seized upon the opprobrious term as a party watchword; and the next day it was adopted by them at a great banquet, where Count Brederode appeared carrying a wallet and a wooden bowl, which was passed around the table amid jovial shouts of "Long live the Beggars!"

**Opposition of the Netherlanders.**

**"The Beggars."**

The government replied to the petition by issuing an edict which it styled the "Moderation;" but, as the only concession which it made was that of permitting heretics to be hanged instead of burned, the Netherlanders called the decree "Murderation." The excitement increased; and thousands began to assemble in the woods by night, and afterwards in daylight on the open plains, to listen to preachers who harangued them upon the miseries of the country. The multitudes grew bolder; and eventually riotous mobs in Brussels, Antwerp and other Netherland towns demolished the cathedrals and destroyed the images of the Virgin and the saints. At length the regent Margaret, who was virtually a prisoner in her own house, was forced to sign a permission for Protestants to assemble for worship so long as they congregated peacefully and unarmed and did not in the least molest the Catholics, A. D. 1566.

**"Moderation" and "Murderation."**

**Riotous Outbreaks.**

Secret intelligence from Spain convinced the Netherlanders that an appeal to arms was inevitable. A battle was fought near Antwerp, in March, 1567, in which fifteen hundred of the "Beggars" were slain; and three hundred others were subsequently massacred. After vainly

**Battle and Massacre near Antwerp.**

trying to mediate between the hostile parties, the Prince of Orange retired into Germany.

The Duke of Alva in the Netherlands.

When Philip II. heard of the outbreaks in the Netherlands he tore his beard in rage; and, seeing the necessity of assigning the direction of affairs in the Netherlands to stronger and sterner hands than those of his half-sister, he sent the infamous Duke of Alva, a man of iron will and cruel inflexibility of purpose, to crush the revolt. The Duke of Alva arrived at Brussels with a Spanish army in August, 1567, and treacherously seized Counts Egmont and Horn and imprisoned them in a dungeon at Ghent, although they were Catholic nobles; after which he organized an infamous tribunal in his own house at Brussels and by his own authority; and this tribunal soon justified its name, the "Council of Blood."

"Council of Blood."

The Prince of Orange and Count Buren.

The Prince of Orange and the Netherland nobles who were with him in Germany were summoned to appear before the Council of Blood, but they replied by denying its authority. Count Buren, the eldest son of the Prince of Orange, was thereupon torn from his studies at the University of Louvain and sent a prisoner into Spain.

Margaret and the Duke of Alva.

As the Duchess Margaret of Parma was thus superseded in her command by the cruel Duke of Alva, she resigned the regency of the Netherlands and retired into Italy; whereupon the Duke of Alva assumed her powers and became Governor-General of the Netherlands.

Hangings, Decapitations and Burnings.

In February, 1568, a decree of the Inquisition, confirmed by a royal edict ten days afterward, sentenced the whole population of the Netherlands to death, with a few exceptions specially stated. Although this extravagant decree was not literally executed, it was made the warrant for innumerable atrocities. Common criminals were hanged, nobles were beheaded and obstinate heretics were burned. At first the king's officials obtained a revenue from the confiscated property of the victims of Spanish tyranny; but, as this revenue was soon exhausted, an arbitrary tax of one per cent upon all real estate and personal property, five per cent upon all transfers of real estate, and ten per cent upon all other articles sold, aroused the indignation even of the classes who had escaped the persecutions.

Confiscation and Taxation.

Wholesale Ruin.

These measures struck a terrible blow to the prosperity of the Netherlands. Commerce ceased; towns were deserted, and people on the coast took refuge upon the sea or beyond, while many in the interior fled to the forests and became the terror of travelers and of the neighboring villages. The Prince of Orange granted letters of marque to many of the sea-farers, called "Sea-Beggars," who, as privateers, or pirates, preyed upon Spanish commerce and became a terror to Spanish seamen. The outlaws of the woods were known by the name of "Wild Beggars."

"Sea Beggars" and "Wild Beggars."

Maximilian's Protest and Philip's Reply.

The Emperor Maximilian II. remonstrated with his cousin, King Philip II. of Spain, and claimed the "Circle of Burgundy" as under his own protection; but Philip II. replied that he would rather not reign at all than reign over heretics, and that he would persevere in the policy which he had inaugurated though the skies should fall.

The Prince of Orange and His "Justification."

The Prince of Orange now mustered three armies from his own resources and from the contributions of the Dutch and Flemish cities, and planned a threefold attack upon the provinces held by the Spanish troops under the Duke of Alva. Before appealing to arms, the Prince of Orange published a "Justification," denouncing the Council of Blood and all the atrocious acts of the cruel Governor-General, and charging King Philip II. with having forgotten all his own royal oaths as sovereign of the Netherlands, as well as the services which the House of Orange had rendered to Philip II. and his ancestors. Two of the Netherland armies were defeated. The third patriot army, under Count Louis of Nassau, the brother of the Prince of Orange, achieved a brilliant victory over the Spaniards near Groningen; but his other brother, Adolf of Nassau, was killed, as was also the Spanish commander D'Aremberg.

Netherland Victory.

Execution of Counts Egmont and Horn

Counts Egmont and Horn were tried by the Duke of Alva's Council of Blood at Brussels, and were hastily condemned and executed. As both were Knights of the Golden Fleece, they had a right to be tried only by the statutes of their order. Egmont might also have claimed the privileges of his native province, the duchy of Brabant—privileges which King Philip II. had solemnly guaranteed at his accession; while Horn, who was a German count, was subject to trial only by the Electors and princes of the Germano-Roman Empire. But law and equity were disregarded in such circumstances by Philip II. and his cruel instrument, the Duke of Alva; and both Egmont and Horn were beheaded in the great square of Brussels, June 5, 1568. Two years afterward Count Horn's brother, the Baron Montigny, who had gone on an embassy to Spain in 1566, was privately garroted in the prison to which he had been illegally consigned.

Netherland Defeats.

After the execution of Counts Egmont and Horn, the Duke of Alva marched against Count Louis of Nassau, who was defeated at Emden with the loss of his entire army and escaped into Germany without any followers. His brother, the Prince of Orange, was soon afterward forced to disband his army; and both brothers proceeded with several hundred cavalry to the assistance of the Huguenots in the civil-religious wars of France, while waiting for a more auspicious time for the deliverance of their own oppressed country.

For four years the Sea-Beggars had carried their prizes into English harbors, where they obtained water and provisions, though Eng-

Queen Elizabeth and the "Sea Beggars."

land was then nominally at peace with Spain. Queen Elizabeth secretly supplied the Flemish patriots with money; while Philip II. sent gold, spies and plotters into England to instigate conspiracies against its Protestant queen. But at length the Queen of England, unwilling to declare war against the King of Spain, and unable to continue her assistance to the rebels of the Netherlands without doing so, forbade her subjects to sell food to the Sea-Beggars.

Seizure of Briel.

Thereupon De la Marck, a Flemish captain, with twenty-four vessels, sailed from England to the northernmost island of Zealand and seized its capital, Briel, which he made the stronghold of the Sea-Beggars. Thus encouraged, the towns of Walcheren, Enckhuisen and many others in the Northern Netherlands hastened to cast off the oppressive yoke of the Duke of Alva and his despotic master, the King of Spain. Deputies from the nobles and cities assembled at Dort, July 15, 1572, and declared William, Prince of Orange, to be the lawful Stadtholder of the four provinces of Holland, Zealand, Friesland and Utrecht during the absence of King Philip II. of Spain. This was the founding of the Dutch Republic; and Queen Elizabeth's order-in-council led directly thereto, though not in the least so intended.

William of Orange, Stadtholder.

Dutch Republic Founded.

Netherland Successes.

The Duke of Alva was in despair for the moment. The French court seemed to have become Protestant for the time, and to be resolved to espouse the cause of the heretics in the Netherlands. Count Louis of Nassau was beseiged in Mons; but his brother, the Prince of Orange, had advanced with a force of German auxiliaries and captured Ruremond, Dendermonde, Mechlin and Oudenarde, and was on the point of relieving Louis when the situation was entirely changed by the news of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew in France.

Spanish Successes and Massacres.

An auxiliary force of Huguenot soldiers from France, paid by their king, Charles IX., to coöperate in the defense of Mons, were betrayed, and were massacred in cold blood after being taken prisoners, in accordance with their king's recommendation to the Duke of Alva. Mons surrendered to the Spaniards on honorable terms. All the towns of the duchy of Brabant and the county of Flanders were forced to submit to the Duke of Alva. Mechlin was the scene of a three days' pillage and massacre. The revolt in the southern provinces of the Netherlands was ended by defeat, but in the northern provinces it triumphed, and the Prince of Orange returned to Holland and came into possession of the government of the new Dutch Republic.

The Dutch Fleet.

The Dutch fleet was frozen up in the harbor of Amsterdam during the winter of 1572–'73. The Spaniards marched across the ice to attack this fleet, but it was successfully defended by a troop of Dutch musketeers on skates. One of the most obstinate of the operations of the war was the siege of Haarlem. Several hundreds of the most

honorable women enrolled and armed themselves for the defense of their native city and participated in several battles. Thousands of Spaniards perished from cold, hunger and sickness; but Haarlem finally surrendered to the Spaniards, and between two and three thousand of its citizens were put to death. Warned by the dreadful example of Haarlem, the town of Alkmaar made so resolute a defense that the Spanish commander was obliged to raise the siege.

Siege and Capture of Haarlem.

Defense of Alkmaar.

The Duke of Alva was recalled from the Netherlands in 1573. According to his own boast, the death-sentence which the Council of Blood had pronounced against all "heretics" was so well executed that during his administration of six years (A. D. 1567–1573) eighteen thousand persons were put to death.

Eighteen Thousand Executions.

The Duke of Alva's successor as Spanish Governor-General of the Netherlands was Don Louis de Requesens, whose just and liberal character was a pledge of a more conciliatory policy. Wholesale robbery and massacre were now discontinued, but the arbitrary and oppressive taxes were still levied, and the Council of Blood continued its sittings.

Don Louis de Requesens.

The Netherland patriots were everywhere victorious at sea, but the invincible Spanish infantry maintained its old renown. Count Louis of Nassau marched with some German recruits to join his brother, the Prince of Orange, but was defeated and killed near Nimeguen, February, 1574.

Defeat and Death of Louis of Nassau.

The Spaniards now pressed the siege of Leyden with vigor, and the heroic defense of the city by the Dutch was one of the most remarkable events of the sixteenth century. The garrison was small, but the resistance was maintained chiefly by the valor and constancy of the citizens. Famine began its horrors in June, 1574, and the city was not relieved until October 3, 1574.

Siege of Leyden.

The Prince of Orange anxiously watched the foe from his headquarters at Delft and Rotterdam, but could only bring his fleet to the relief of the beleaguered city by opening the dykes on the Meuse and the Yssel, and thus laying the country under water and flooding the Spanish trenches. The young grain was in the fields; but the states consented to the sacrifice, and the dykes were cut under the direction of the Prince of Orange.

Opening of the Dykes.

The starving citizens of Leyden, from their towers, watched the rise of the flood from the sea which engulfed their fertile fields and which was to bring them relief. A provision fleet of two hundred vessels sailed from Delft, but the waters were twice driven back by an east wind, and the fleet lay helplessly stranded; while the more feeble and desperate citizens crowded around the burgomaster in the city, clamoring for either food or surrender. The burgomaster replied: "I have taken an oath never to put myself or my fellow-citizens in the power

Dutch Provision Fleet Stranded.

The Burgomaster's Resolution.

of the false and cruel Spaniards; and I will die rather than break it. But here is my sword; plunge it, if you will, into my breast, and devour my flesh, if that will relieve your hunger."

Relief of Leyden.

The starving people of Leyden were roused to new courage by the noble example of their burgomaster, and their patience was finally rewarded. A north-westerly gale which set in on October 1st forced the waters of the North Sea over the ruined dykes. The Dutch fleet was now fairly afloat, and it engaged in a strange midnight struggle with the Spanish fleet amid the boughs of orchards and the chimneys of submerged buildings; but the resolution of the Spaniards was finally worn out by the wonderful constancy and determination of the Dutch, in whose cause the elements of wind and water appeared enlisted. Even the fall of a large part of the walls of Leyden, which the water had undermined, frightened the Spaniards only, and they hastily evacuated their two forts and fled. The Dutch fleet sailed up the channel thus formed, and distributed loaves of bread all the way to the crowds of hungry people along the banks.

Public Thanksgiving.

No sooner were the pangs of hunger relieved than the entire population of Leyden walked in joyful procession to the principal church in the city, and there rendered thanks to God for their great deliverance.

University of Leyden.

The next day a north-easterly gale swept the inundating waters back into the sea, and the dykes were soon repaired. The institution of an annual fair of ten days and the founding of a university at Leyden rewarded the citizens for their heroic defense, and that university has

Calvinism.

honored Europe with many illustrious men. The Synod of Dort in 1574 established Calvinism as the state-religion of the new Dutch Republic.

Mediation of Emperor Maximilian II.

Thus defeated in war and ruined in finance, Philip II. of Spain at length accepted the mediation of his cousin, the Emperor Maximilian II., which he had refused so arrogantly before; and with this object a congress was held at Buda, in Hungary, for three months in 1575.

War Renewed.

But, as the Spanish king would make no concessions, and as the revolted Netherlands had no reason to have any confidence in his word, the war was renewed with more than its former fury.

Spanish Mutiny and Pillage of Antwerp.

Don Louis de Requesens, the Governor-General of the Netherlands, died in March, 1576—an event which was followed by still greater confusion in the distracted country. The unpaid Spanish soldiers broke out into open mutiny, marching through the provinces, plundering and destroying without hindrance. They made themselves masters of the towns of Alost, Ghent, Utrecht, Maestricht and Valenciennes; and finally they subjected Antwerp, the richest city of the Netherlands and then the banking center of all Europe, to a frightful pillage and massacre lasting three days, during which a thousand houses were reduced to ashes and eight thousand citizens slaughtered.

Pacification of Ghent.

This disastrous state of affairs in the southern provinces of the Netherlands induced the Prince of Orange to persuade the authorities at Brussels to summon the States-General; and when that assembly was convened he complied with their request by sending several thousand troops to drive the Spanish soldiery from Ghent. An alliance, called the *Pacification of Ghent*, was now formed by all but one of the provinces of both the Northern and the Southern Netherlands, November 8, 1576; by which it was agreed to summon the Estates of all the Netherlands to an assembly like the one which had received the abdication of the Emperor Charles V., and also to drive all Spanish troops from the Netherlands and to provide for religious peace and toleration.

Don John of Austria as Governor-General.

Just before the Pacification of Ghent, Philip II. of Spain appointed his half-brother, Don John of Austria, the victor of Lepanto, to the office of Governor-General of the Netherlands, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Don Louis de Requesens. But the Netherlanders were so united in resisting the Spaniards that Don John was obliged to enter even Luxemburg—the only Netherland city that had refused to join the others in the Pacification of Ghent—in the disguise of a Moorish slave, November, 1576.

His Perpetual Edict.

As Don John was without money or soldiers, his only alternative was to concede all the demands of the revolted Netherlanders and to take an oath to observe all the charters and customs of the country; and these concessions were embodied in the *Perpetual Edict*—a name seemingly intended for mockery, as King Philip II. had instructed his half-brother to promise everything but to perform nothing. As the Netherlanders still refused to give Don John possession of the citadel of Brussels, he revenged himself by treacherously seizing the fortress of Namur and by capturing Charlemont and Marienburg; but the citizens of Ghent and Antwerp destroyed the citadels of those cities to prevent him from getting possession of them.

His Seizures and Captures.

Archduke Matthias of Austria.

The Catholic nobles of the Netherlands now set up the Archduke Matthias of Austria, brother of the Emperor Rudolf II. of Germany, as a rival to Don John of Austria. The Prince of Orange recognized Matthias as Governor-General of the Netherlands, and was named his lieutenant. The bonds between the Northern and Southern Netherlands were more closely drawn together by the *Union of Brussels*, a new league of all the states of the Netherlands for the common defense, on the basis of perfect religious toleration. That was the last time that all the Netherlands were united until the first part of the nineteenth century (A. D. 1814–1830).

Union of Brussels.

About this time Queen Elizabeth discovered a plot of Don John to depose her, marry Mary Stuart and reign over England; the plot

Queen Elizabeth's Aid to the Netherlands.

being favored by Pope Gregory XIII. and by the Guises of France, but being viewed with unbrotherly jealousy by the King of Spain. In consequence of this plot the Queen of England rendered more effective assistance to the Netherlands by sending six thousand men to aid the forces of the revolted provinces, early in 1578.

Alexander Farnese of Parma.

Philip II. had prepared for this action of England's queen by sending his nephew, Alexander Farnese of Parma, the son of Philip's half-sister Margaret, the former regent of the Netherlands, with reinforcements of Spanish and Italian veterans.

Netherland Defeat.

The army of the Netherlands was almost annihilated in the battle of Gemblours, but the struggling patriots were more than consoled for that disaster by the accession of Amsterdam to the Union of Brussels a week afterward.

Don John Defeated.

In August, 1578, Don John was defeated at Rymenants, chiefly by the English auxiliaries, and died from disease two months afterward.

Alexander Farnese, Governor-General.

His successor as Governor-General was Alexander Farnese of Parma, who was the greatest general of the time, though he did not possess that fascination of manner which rendered his predecessor so extremely popular.

The Duke of Anjou.

In the meantime the Catholic party which had set up the Archduke Matthias of Austria discovered that he was a useless puppet, and virtually deposed him by calling in the Duke of Anjou, brother of King Charles IX. of France and of Henry III., the next King of France.

His Weak Character.

The Duke of Anjou was a weak and insignificant character, capable of being flattered by the high sounding title of "Defender of the Liberties of the Netherlands." He hoped to become King of England by marrying Queen Elizabeth—a hope which the English queen, by her subtle and wavering policy, neither indulged nor denied.

The Duke of Anjou and Queen Elizabeth.

The Duke of Anjou entered the county of Hainault with a French army in September, 1578, and took several towns from the Spaniards; but he then feigned submission to the will of Queen Elizabeth by returning into France. As England's great queen believed firmly in the "divine right of kings," she was not favorable to the independence of the Netherlands, but she desired that their hereditary sovereign should be forced to respect their rights and liberties. Her council, however, desired to see the Netherlands severed from the crown of Spain, even if they became dependencies of France.

Democratic Insurrection in Ghent.

The union of the seventeen states of the Netherlands finally received its death-blow by the excesses of the popular party, and not by foreign despotism. An insurrection was incited at Ghent against the terms of the religious peace by two Protestant noblemen of radical principles and depraved character. The rebels imprisoned the governor of Ghent, and organized a democracy in which the legislative power was vested in the deans of the guilds and the captains of the militia, while the

executive authority was assigned to a council of eighteen citizens. The same thing occurred in many other towns of the Southern, or Catholic Netherlands.

Dissensions among the Netherlanders.

The Archduke Matthias of Austria and the Prince-Palatine, John Casimir, supported the democracy; and these dissensions among the reputed friends of liberty were detrimental to the interests of the Netherlands. The arms which should have presented a united front to the common foe were turned against each other. The four Walloon provinces bordering on France were ravaged by a Huguenot force from that kingdom; while the Walloons, with French assistance, devastated the country as far as Ghent.

Division in the Netherlands.

The destructive elements were mingled with the Huguenots of France in these disorders, which thus effecutally severed the Southern, or Catholic provinces of the Netherlands from the Union of Brussels. The Prince of Orange had endeavored vainly to suppress the revolutionary movements by protecting the interests of the Catholic priests and people; but he succeeded only in forming a closer union of the seven Northern, or Protestant provinces of the Netherlands—Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Guelders, Overyssel, Friesland and Groningen—which were thus united in a permanent league by the *Union of Utrecht*, in 1579, making the Dutch Republic a certainty. These seven provinces, while acknowledging a nominal allegiance to Philip II., resolved to drive all foreigners from the country and to restore the old laws, customs and privileges of each province.

Union of Utrecht.

Congress at Cologne.

A congress at Cologne, under the auspices of the Emperor Rudolf II., and attended by the envoys of the Netherlands, Philip II. of Spain, Pope Gregory XIII., several German states, France and England, failed to bring about the union and reconciliation of all the provinces of the Netherlands, as neither side would make any concessions, though seven months were occupied in diligent diplomacy.

Dutch, Flemish and Walloon Provinces.

The four Walloon provinces submitted to King Philip II. on condition that he should withdraw the Spanish troops; and thus the Netherlands were divided into three parts—the Protestant United States in the North; the middle or Flemish provinces, whose population was almost equally divided between Roman Catholicism and Protestantism; and the wholly Catholic Walloon provinces in the South.

Capture and Pillage of Maestricht.

Alexander Farnese of Parma took Maestricht at the close of June, 1579, after a siege of three months; and that city suffered terribly from the brutal rage of the victorious Spanish troops. Order was restored in Ghent by the Prince of Orange, who exacted a just restitution of property which had been plundered during the riots.

By the advice of Cardinal Granvelle, who had now returned to power. King Philip II. published his royal ban against William, Prince of

William of Orange Outlawed by Philip II.

Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic. By this sentence of outlawry the King of Spain denounced the crimes of Cain and Judas Iscariot against the illustrious and blameless patriot, set a price of twenty-five thousand gold crowns upon his head, and offered a title and rank of nobility to any one who would assassinate him, as well as pardon for all the crimes which he might have committed, however heinous they might be.

His Masterly Reply.

William of Orange replied to the Spanish king's denunciation by a most remarkable state-paper, in which he treated that denunciation with the contempt which it so richly merited. In this document William declared that Philip II. had forfeited all his hereditary claims upon the Netherlands by his violation of his solemn oaths and the charters of those states, "not once only, but a million of times." He indignantly hurled back upon the Spanish king himself the charge of having fomented discord in the Netherlands, as that monarch's atrocious cruelty had made his most loyal and peaceful subjects the victims of pillage and massacre. William ridiculed Philip's attempt to terrify him by setting a price upon his head, and inquired if the Spanish king could imagine him to be ignorant of the numerous previous efforts of bribed poisoners and assassins. The Prince of Orange sent his document to most of the sovereigns of Europe, affixed with his name and seal, which bore the characteristic motto: "I will maintain."

The Duke of Anjou as Ruler of the Netherlands.

Negotiations were now resumed with the Duke of Anjou, and the Archduke Matthias of Austria was allowed to retire on a pension. The French prince signed an agreement to make his permanent residence in the Netherlands, to convene the States-General once a year and to observe strictly the rights and privileges of the provinces. He was in turn invested with full sovereignty in all the provinces of the Netherlands, except Holland and Zealand, which were reserved for William, Prince of Orange.

Act of Abjuration.

The States-General of the Netherlands, assembled at The Hague, by a solemn *Act of Abjuration*, July 26, 1581, renounced all their allegiance to Philip II. of Spain, and declared Francis of Valois, Duke of Anjou, sovereign lord of the Netherlands. The Act of Abjuration was drawn up by Sainte Aldegonde, a friend of the Prince of Orange, and is the first distinct declaration of the natural right of a people to cast off their allegiance to an unjust sovereign. This state-paper asserted that princes are appointed by God to rule for the welfare of their subjects, and that if they neglect their sacred duty by oppressing their people instead of protecting them the people are no longer bound in law or in reason to recognize their authority. This was a charter of political freedom similar in character to the American Declaration of Independence.

Capture of Cambray and Antwerp by the Duke of Anjou.

The Duke of Anjou led a French army of seventeen thousand men into the Netherlands, forced Alexander Farnese of Parma to raise the siege of Cambray and entered that city in triumph. Several months afterward he made a joyous entry into Antwerp, where the Prince of Orange invested him with the ducal cap and mantle, and duly proclaimed him *Duke of Brabant and Margrave of the Holy Roman Empire*. Other Netherland provinces successively installed him in their respective sovereignties; but he was dissatisfied with the limited power thus conferred, and was intensely jealous of the superior influence of the Prince of Orange. He was even already plotting with his worthless favorites to overthrow the very liberties which he had solemnly sworn to maintain.

His Treachery.

Revolt of Antwerp against Him.

The Flemings had never trusted the Duke of Anjou; and when he brought his army to take military possession of Antwerp, under pretense of a review, in January, 1583, the inhabitants of that city arose in arms against him, secured their streets with chains and barricades, and made so determined a resistance that only half of the French soldiers escaped from the city with their lives. Antwerp suffered less from the "French Fury" of 1583 than from the "Spanish Fury" of 1576, mainly because the French troops of the Duke of Anjou commenced plundering before they massacred, while the Spanish troops of the Duke of Alva first slaughtered and then easily took possession of the property of their victims.

His Flight from the Netherlands.

As the Duke of Anjou was thus frustrated in his design, he fled on horseback in the direction of Dendermonde. A dyke was opened on his route and a thousand of his followers were drowned. Having thus by his own act ceased to be the "Defender of the Liberties of the Netherlands," the Duke of Anjou retired to Dunkirk, and soon left the country, never to return, though a treaty of reconciliation was signed in March of the same year, 1583.

Spanish Reinforcements.

As the Spaniards had by this time completed the conquest of Portugal, Alexander Farnese of Parma received large reinforcements from Spain, and was thus enabled to resume active operations. The patriot party retained possession of only three Flemish towns before the autumn of 1584.

Assassination of William of Orange

The greatest loss sustained by the Netherland patriots was the assassination of their great leader, William, Prince of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, in July, 1584. Five attempts had been made upon his life in two years by the agents of the King of Spain. The first of these attempts was so nearly successful that his wife died from anxiety and suspense in consequence. The last and successful attempt was that of the fanatic Balthazar Gerard, of Franche-Comté, who gained admission to the household of the Prince of Orange

under pretense of obtaining a passport, and shot him at the door of the royal banqueting-hall at Delft. The assassin was instantly seized and put to death with horrible cruelty; but his parents received the rewards which King Philip II. had promised the assassin, and the lasting badges of their shame were three lordships in Franche-Comté with a title among the landed aristocracy.

**His Character and Statesmanship.**

The Netherland patriots deeply mourned their dead leader and little children cried in the streets. The Dutch Republic owed its existence to the self-denying and steadfast energy of William of Orange, though he was not permitted to live to see its freedom established. He was the greatest statesman of his time, and possessed in a remarkable degree the art of reading the designs of others and concealing his own purposes; and this last accomplishment gave him the surname of *the Silent*, rather than any social taciturnity of manner.

**His Rejection of the Offers of Philip II.**

He had spent his vast fortune in his country's service; and he had repeatedly refused the most tempting offers of wealth and dominion, by which Philip II. of Spain had endeavored to detach him from the patriot cause. Philip II. had offered to release his imprisoned son and to confer cities, estates and sovereignties in Germany upon William himself, who, in fact, had only to name his terms for deserting the often seemingly hopeless cause of the Netherlands. In alluding to the magnificent offers made to him, the Prince of Orange had afterward said: "They well know that I would not for property nor for life, for wife nor for children, mix in my cup a single drop of the poison of treason."

**Prince Maurice of Orange, Stadtholder.**

The murdered leader's son, Count Buren, was still detained a prisoner in Spain—an alien as much from his father's faith and patriotism as from his home. Upon William's assassination, his second son, Prince Maurice of Orange, then only eighteen years of age, was immediately proclaimed Stadtholder of Holland, Zealand and Utrecht, and High Admiral of the Union.

**Siege of Antwerp.**

The siege of Antwerp lasted almost a year and taxed all the masterly talents of Alexander Farnese of Parma, while the ability of Sainte Aldegonde and the extraordinary valor and constancy of the citizens were displayed in the defense of the city. The Spaniards spent half a year in constructing a fortified bridge or causeway below the city to cut off its communication with the maritime provinces. The garrison vainly endeavored to destroy this bridge by means of fire-ships, and sought to open a new passage to the sea, but were defeated in a bloody battle fought upon the dykes.

**Its Capture and Ruin.**

Antwerp finally surrendered, A. D. 1585. Its fortress was rebuilt from the ruins of private dwellings, and with the entry of a Spanish garrison and the Jesuits "civilization and commerce departed." So

complete was the desolation and decay that grass grew and cattle fed in the streets of the city which had been the banking center of all Europe; while the intelligence, thrift and industry of its citizens found other homes.

Queen Elizabeth's Alliance with the Dutch Republic.

As Queen Elizabeth of England knew herself to be marked as the victim of a plot similar to the one which had ended the life of William of Orange, she now concluded an open alliance with the Dutch Republic and sent money and troops to its assistance, justifying her action before the world by a state-paper in which she enumerated the iniquities of the Spanish government toward the Netherlands and the secret hostilities of the King of Spain toward herself.

The Earl of Leicester as Governor-General.

In return for the assistance of England's queen, the Dutch Republic placed Flushing and Briel in her possession as security for the moneys expended, and bestowed the title of Governor-General upon the Earl of Leicester, the commander of the English forces in the Netherlands. Although Queen Elizabeth had repeatedly refused the sovereignty of the Netherlands when it was offered to her, she burst into a furious rage when she was informed of her favorite general's acceptance of that dignity.

Queen Elizabeth's Anger.

Queen Elizabeth's sharp reprimand to the Earl of Leicester was read in the presence of the States-General of the Netherlands, and contributed much toward neutralizing all the advantages of the alliance, as it aroused strong suspicions that the English queen was secretly in correspondence with the King of Spain—suspicions which were not wholly groundless. In retaliation for Elizabeth's manifesto, Philip II. seized all English subjects and all English property in his dominions at that time, and Alexander Farnese of Parma pressed hostilities in the Netherlands with redoubled vigor.

Retaliation of Philip II.

Siege of Zutphen and Death of Sir Philip Sidney.

In September, 1586, the English under the Earl of Leicester besieged Zutphen; and it was in a skirmish before that city that the gallant Sir Philip Sidney, the most accomplished knight and the gentlest spirit of the age, received a wound which caused him to die the death of a hero three weeks afterward at Arnheim. The Earl of Leicester soon proved his military incompetency, and returned to England at the close of 1587; whereupon Prince Maurice of Orange was assigned the chief command of the forces of the Dutch Republic, while Lord Willoughby was left in charge of the English troops only.

Maurice of Orange.

The Spanish Armada against England.

As we have seen in the history of England, the execution of Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, at Fotheringay Castle, in England, in February, 1587, by order of Queen Elizabeth, aroused the wrath of Philip II. of Spain and of Pope Sixtus V. against England's Protestant queen; and the Spanish king sent the Invincible Armada against England in the summer of 1588 for the conquest of that kingdom as pre-

Result of Its Destruction.

liminary to the subjugation of the Netherlands and the overthrow of Protestantism in Europe. The destruction of that gigantic Spanish fleet by the English navy and by a series of furious tempests virtually secured the independence of the Dutch Republic.

English Invasion of Portugal.

The English retaliated in 1589 by invading Portugal in a vain attempt in the interest of Dom Antonio, and became masters of the suburbs of Lisbon and seized sixty Hanseatic vessels laden with supplies for a new armada. The Spaniards were not prepared for another encounter with English bravery.

Spanish Operations.

In the Netherlands the military operations of the Spaniards were paralyzed by an exhausted treasury, as the soldiers of Alexander Farnese of Parma were unpaid and almost starved; and that commander was ordered by King Philip II. to lead his army into France in the interest of the Catholic party in that kingdom, the throne of which had just received a Protestant king, Henry IV., the first Bourbon sovereign of France.

Success of Maurice of Orange.

The wise and victorious generalship of Prince Maurice of Orange reunited the Seven Provinces of the Dutch Republic. He overran the county of Flanders and the duchy of Brabant, and established himself on the left banks of the Meuse and the Scheldt.

Death of Alexander Farnese.

Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma, the Spanish Governor-General of the Netherlands—whose remarkable military talents and statecraft preserved the Flemish provinces to Spain—died in December, 1592;

Ernest of Austria.

and the Archduke Ernest of Austria, brother of Matthias and of the Emperor Rudolf II., was appointed to the Governor-Generalship of the Netherlands by the Spanish king.

War between Spain and France.

War was declared between France and Spain in January, 1595, and Spanish armies invaded France both from Spain itself and from the Netherlands. The Spaniards took Cambray, October 2, 1595, and Calais in April, 1596. As Queen Elizabeth feared a Spanish invasion of England, she entered into an alliance with King Henry IV. of France

Alliance of England and France.

and with the Dutch Republic. The defeat of the Spanish fleet in the harbor of Cadiz by the combined English and Dutch fleets under Sir Francis Drake, who destroyed between thirty and forty Spanish merchantmen, was followed by the abandonment of the city to the victorious allies, whose fleets returned home laden with great spoil, A. D. 1596.

Destruction of a Second Spanish Armada.

The next year another English and Dutch naval expedition was defeated by a furious tempest, which also destroyed the second armada which Philip II. of Spain had fitted out for another attempt to invade England, with the design of dethroning Queen Elizabeth and placing his favorite daughter upon the English throne. The English fleet, which had merely been driven back to port, then sailed to the Azores and captured Fayal, Graciosa and Flores, A. D. 1597.

Spanish Defeats and Victories.

In the Netherlands, Prince Maurice of Orange defeated the Spaniards at Turnhout, mainly by the then novel device of supplying his cavalry with firearms. The Spaniards under the Archduke Albert of Austria soon afterward took the town of Amiens, in France, by stratagem; but the French forces under King Henry IV. recaptured the town after a siege of a few months.

Peace of Vervins.

King Philip II. of Spain was now aged and infirm and drained of his resources, and he consented to a peace with France, through the mediation of Pope Clement VIII., who had long been desirous of uniting the forces of Christendom against the heretics and the Turks; and by the Peace of Vervins, in May, 1598, Philip II. restored all the conquests which his armies had made from the French, except the fortress of Cambray.

The Infanta Isabella.

In August, 1598, the Infanta Isabella, daughter of Philip II., was acknowledged sovereign of the Netherlands and Franche-Comté. Her intended consort, the Archduke Albert of Austria, received an equal share in the government; and both were called "the Archdukes," in order to render their dignity identical.

Death of Philip II.

Philip II. died the next month, September 13, 1598, without seeing the end of the war which his bigotry and tyranny had provoked in the Netherlands, and which had already lasted more than thirty years.

Prosperity and Maritime Power of the Dutch Republic.

At the close of the sixteenth century the Dutch Republic was the leading maritime power of Europe. Its prosperity had been increased by immigration from the southern provinces of the Netherlands, which where still held and oppressed by the Spaniards; so that new towns had to be built in the Dutch Republic or new streets added to the old towns, in order to accommodate the manufacturers and merchants from the duchy of Brabant and the county of Flanders. In these two provinces villages and even towns were depopulated; so that foxes, wolves and wild boars prowled over the land which once had been occupied by a thriving population, two hundred persons having been killed by wild beasts in the immediate vicinity of Ghent in one year, 1586–'87.

Dutch Victory.

By extending and confirming its power, the Dutch Republic had been able in the meantime to inflict several severe blows upon the Spanish dominion. Prince Maurice of Orange defeated the Spanish army of the "Archdukes" before Nieuport, capturing one hundred standards and all their artillery and baggage.

Siege of Ostend.

The siege of Ostend by the Archduke Albert lasted almost four years (A. D. 1601–1604), and the Dutch defeated a formidable assault of the Spaniards by opening the dykes and thus drowning many of the assailants.

Reinforcements.

In 1602 the Spanish army engaged in the siege of Ostend was reinforced by the famous Genoese general, Ambrose Spinola, with eight thousand troops; while the Dutch were reinforced by six thousand Eng-

lish troops under Sir Francis Vere, sent to their aid by Queen Elizabeth.

Death of Queen Elizabeth.

The death of the great English queen, in March, 1603, was a severe loss to the Protestants throughout Europe, to whom she had been a powerful protectress, notwithstanding her inconsistencies; and her successor, James I., who was a still more obstinate believer in the "divine right of kings," looked upon the Dutch as rebels and traitors.

Capture of Ostend.

The siege of Ostend, in which one hundred thousand men had perished, ended with the surrender of the city to the Spaniards, September 20, 1604; but before its fall the Dutch captured Sluys and all the ships in its harbor.

Truce.

A large party in Holland, under the leadership of the Grand Pensionary, Van Olden Barneveldt, now desired peace, though all were agreed to treat with Spain only on the condition of the independence of the Dutch Republic. In the spring of 1607 a truce of eight months on land was arranged, but the Dutch admiral Heemskirk was sent from Amsterdam with a formidable fleet to harass the coasts of Spain and Portugal and to protect the Dutch ships returning from the East and West Indies. This Dutch fleet destroyed almost the whole Spanish fleet in a fierce battle in the harbor of Gibraltar, both admirals being slain; but the Dutch fleet was scarcely injured, and was able speedily to intercept the treasure-galleons and merchantmen from Spanish America.

Dutch Naval Victory at Gibraltar.

Philip III. and the "Sea-Beggars."

King Philip III. of Spain was obliged to beg a truce from the "Sea-Beggars;" but he refused to treat with them on any other condition than as his subjects, and signed his treaty, "I, the king," without the Great Seal, which was indispensable in all treaties with foreign powers.

Truce of 1609.

Through the mediation of France and England, a truce for twelve years was signed at Bergen-op-Zoom, April, 1609, by which the Dutch Republic virtually secured its independence, after a struggle of forty years. By this treaty the Dutch secured possession of the spice-bearing Molucca Islands, in the East Indies, along with the privilege of trade with both the East and West Indies. The Dutch Republic also increased its home territories by the annexation of the whole of Dutch Flanders and several important towns on the frontiers of Brabant, and by the possession of forts they obtained command of the Scheldt. But it was almost forty years later before Spain formally acknowledged the independence of the Dutch Republic, which was finally done by the Peace of Westphalia, in October, 1648, which ended the Thirty Years' War in Germany and the Eighty Years' War of Independence in the Netherlands.

Independence of the Dutch Republic.

Spanish Netherlands.

The Southern, or Catholic provinces of the Netherlands—the present Kingdom of Belgium—under the name of the *Spanish Netherlands*, continued to belong to the Spanish crown until 1714; when, by the

Treaty of Rastadt, they were ceded to the Austrian House of Hapsburg, which held possession of them for almost a century under the name of the *Austrian Netherlands*.

Calvinists and Arminians.

No sooner had the Dutch Republic achieved its independence than it began to be distracted by unhappy religious disputes between the Calvinists and the new sect of the Arminians, respecting the Augustinian and Calvinistic doctrine of predestination. The strict Calvinistic party were led by the Stadtholder, Prince Maurice of Orange; while the Arminians, or moderate party, who rejected Calvin's severe views on predestination, were led by many of the best men in the country, among whom were the Grand Pensionary, Van Olden Barneveldt, the author of the constitution of the Dutch Republic, and Hugo Grotius, the renowned jurist and the learned historian of the Dutch War for Independence.

Van Olden Barneveldt and Hugo Grotius.

Synod of Dort and Calvinism.

The Synod of Dort in 1618 decided in favor of the strict Calvinistic doctrine, and condemned the Arminians without a hearing, also banishing or deposing the Arminian preachers. The noble patriot Van Olden Barneveldt, who had done more for the freedom of Holland than any other man except William of Orange, whose friend he was, was then condemned to death. Barneveldt disdained to ask Maurice of Orange to spare his life. Maurice, who could have saved it, declined to interfere ; and the unfortunate Barneveldt was beheaded, in the seventy-second year of his age, May 14, 1619. Hugo Grotius was condemned to perpetual imprisonment, but was finally rescued by the cunning of his faithful wife.

Execution of Van Olden Barneveldt.

Hugo Grotius.

States-General, High Council and Stadtholder.

The legislative power of the Republic of the United States of Holland was vested in an assembly called the States-General; and the executive power was exercised by a High Council, at the head of which was a Stadtholder. Holland emerged from her long struggle for independence strong and prosperous. The Dutch navy was the largest in Europe, and for almost two centuries Holland was the most powerful commercial and maritime rival of England. The Dutch East India Company was formed in 1602, and many of the Portuguese possessions in the East Indies were taken possession of by the Dutch. The most flourishing of the Dutch colonies was the city of Batavia, in the island of Java, which was founded in 1619, and which became the capital of the Dutch colonial empire in the East Indies.

Dutch Navy.

Dutch East India Company.

Dutch Colonies.

The most prominent of the Dutch colonial possessions were Surinam, or Dutch Guiana, in South America, founded in 1580 ; the Spice Islands, wrested from the Portuguese in 1607; the Gold Coast of Guinea, in Western Africa, wrested from the Portuguese in 1611; Batavia, in the island of Java, founded in 1619; New Netherlands, in North America, founded in 1623; the Cape of Good Hope, in

Southern Africa, colonized in 1652, and the island of Ceylon, wrested from the Portuguese in 1656.

East and West Indies.

In the East Indies the Dutch obtained exclusive possession of the large islands of Java, Sumatra, Borneo and Celebes, the peninsula of Malacca and two posts in Hindoostan. The Dutch also colonized some small islands in the West Indies. Their colonial policy was very arbitrary and exclusive.

Frederick Henry as Stadtholder.

Prince Maurice of Orange died in April, 1625, and was succeeded as Captain-General of the United States of the Netherlands by his brother Frederick Henry, who was also elected Stadtholder of Holland, Zealand and West Friesland.

## SECTION XIV.—CIVIL WARS OF RELIGION IN FRANCE (A. D. 1562–1598).

Persecution of French Protestants by Francis I.

The Protestants of France had been cruelly persecuted during the reign of Francis I., who said in a vehement speech before the Bishop of Paris that if one of his limbs was infected with heresy he would cut it off, and that he would sacrifice his own son if he were guilty of that crime. On that occasion six Lutherans were burned alive in the most cruel manner, being alternately let down and drawn up from the flames by means of a machine until they expired.

Henry II., A. D. 1547–1559.

Henry II. was in his twenty-ninth year when he succeeded his father, Francis I., on the throne of France, March 31, 1547. He disregarded his father's dying advice not to employ the Constable Montmorenci in any post of authority and to curb the rising power and ambition of the Guises with a strong hand, and dismissed his father's Ministers, recalled Montmorenci and conferred the highest offices on the Guises.

Constable Montmorenci and the Guises.

Wars of Henry II. with Charles V. and Philip II.

The events of the foreign wars of Henry II. of France—his alliance with the Elector Maurice of Saxony in his war against the Emperor Charles V.; his seizure of Metz, Toul and Verdun, in 1552; the Emperor's unsuccessful attempt to recapture Metz, in 1553; the capture and destruction of Terouenne by Charles V., in 1553; the campaign of the French under the Duke of Guise against the Spaniards under the Duke of Alva in the Papal States, in 1557; the defeat of the French by the Spaniards at St. Quentin, in 1557, and the capture of Calais from the English by the French under the Duke of Guise, in 1558—have all been related in detail and need not be repeated here.

France Ruled by the Guises.

The capture of Calais made Francis, Duke of Guise, the most popular man in France. The Guises were a powerful family of Lorraine, and were descended from Réné of Anjou. During the captivity of the Constable Montmorenci, who had been taken prisoner by the

victorious Spaniards in the battle of St. Quentin, the Guises ruled France through the important civil, military and ecclesiastical offices which they held in the kingdom.

The Guises in France and Scotland.

The Duke of Guise was Lieutenant-General; and his brother, the Cardinal of Lorraine, was Minister of the Interior and of Finance. A third brother commanded the French fleet, and a fourth had charge of the French army in Piedmont. They ruled Scotland through their sister Mary, the widow of King James V. of that kingdom; Mary being the regent for her young daughter, Mary Stuart, the unfortunate Queen of Scots, who spent most of her girlhood at the French court, where she was educated. The marriage of this young Queen of Scots with the Dauphin Francis, April 8, 1558, increased the power of her mother and uncles, the Guises, in both France and Scotland. A secret article of this marriage treaty stipulated that the crowns of France and Scotland should be forever united.

Mary Stuart and the Dauphin Francis.

Peace of Cateau-Cambresis.

The power of the Guises, who were earnest Catholics, hastened the religious crisis in France; while the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis, April 2, 1559, between France, Spain, England and Scotland, divided Europe into two great religious parties, and gave rise to the fierce wars of religion which distracted Western Europe for the last forty years of the sixteenth century. By this treaty France surrendered one hundred and eighty-nine towns and fortresses in various parts of Europe, relinquished all of Savoy and Piedmont, except Turin and four other fortresses, and restored her conquests in Italy and the Netherlands; but she retained Calais and Guines, which she had wrested from England, and Metz, Toul and Verdun, which she had wrested from the Germano-Roman Empire. The Princess Elizabeth, daughter of Henry II. of France, was married to Philip II. of Spain; and Henry's sister Margaret was married to the Duke of Savoy, Emmanuel Philibert, Iron Hand.

Corrupt Rule of Henry II.

During the reign of Henry II. the French government was utterly corrupt; the king's mistress, Diana of Poitiers, selling the offices of state in the most shameless manner; while his queen, Catharine de Medici, was neglected by her royal husband, and was without any authority during his entire reign.

The Huguenots.

Antoine de Bourbon, King of Navarre.

Prince of Conde and Admiral Coligni.

In spite of persecution, the Reformation made remarkable progress in France during the reign of Henry II.; in the last year of which the *Huguenots*, as the French Protestants were called, had about two thousand places of worship in the kingdom, which were attended by congregations numbering over four hundred thousand persons. The Huguenots were Calvinists in faith and worship, and their acknowledged chief was the first prince of the blood royal, Antoine de Bourbon, who had become King of Navarre by his marriage with Jeanne d'Albret, the heiress of the Navarrese crown. The other recognized Huguenot

leaders were the Prince of Condé, Admiral Coligni and his brother, the Sire d'Andelot, and other great French nobles.

Secret Article against Heresy.

The growing strength of the Huguenot party alarmed the French court. As we have seen, a secret article of the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis pledged Kings Henry II. of France and Philip II. of Spain to exterminate heresy within their respective dominions.

Calvinism in France.

The Calvinistic Church of France had organized itself during the month following the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis. Calvin's rescripts issued from Geneva were received by the Protestants of France with as much reverence as were those of the Pope by the adherents of the Roman Church. The Huguenots were most numerous among the more intelligent classes of France, and included many bishops, clergy and monks.

The Inquisition in France.

With the approval of King Henry II., Pope Paul IV. issued a bull providing for the establishment of the Inquisition in France; but the Parliament of Paris refused to register the king's edict for this purpose, and intrusted proceedings in matters of religious faith to two committees of the Parliament itself, one of which was called the *Burning Chamber*, because of the many victims whom it consigned to the flames. The Parliament of Paris condemned these rigors in 1559; but King Henry II. personally interfered in the discussion, and by his orders seven members of the Parliament who advocated a more merciful policy were arrested and imprisoned. To the remonstrances of the Calvinistic synod the king replied that he would himself witness the burning of one of these prisoners.

The Parliament of Paris and the Burning Chamber.

Henry II. and the Huguenots.

The resolute resistance of the Parliaments of Paris and the provinces and the courts of justice to the measures of the king and the Pope aroused the anger of Henry II., and he prepared to crush with a strong hand all opposition to his will. Appreciating their peril, the Huguenots organized for their defense, and appealed to the Protestants of Germany for assistance.

Accidental Death of Henry II.

In this crisis, King Henry II. met with an accidental death in the prime of life, one month after his visit to the Parliament of Paris. The marriages of the two French princesses which followed the Peace of Cateau-Cambresis were celebrated at Paris with great festivities and rejoicings. Among the ceremonies was a grand tournament, which was held in the space between the royal hotel and the tower of the Bastile, where the imprisoned members of the Parliament of Paris were incarcerated. Henry II. challenged the captain of his guard, the Count of Montgomery, a Scottish nobleman, to a tilt. Henry's queen protested, and the Count of Montgomery endeavored to excuse himself from the encounter; but the king persisted, and the tilt took place. Both lances were shivered, and a splinter from that of the Scottish nobleman entered

the king's eye between the bars of his helmet, so that the monarch fell senseless to the ground. He survived in a state of insensibility for eleven days, and then died in the forty-first year of his age and the thirteenth of his reign, July 10, 1559.

Francis II., A. D. 1559–1560.

Francis II., the son and successor of Henry II., was a weak and sickly youth in his sixteenth year when he became King of France, and was completely under the influence of his wife, Mary Stuart, the young Queen of Scotland, who was in her turn ruled by her uncles, the Guises, who were the real masters of both France and Scotland for a year, and who sought to crush the Reformation in both kingdoms, but encountered a determined resistance in both, which soon burst forth in the flames of civil war.

Mary Stuart and the Guises.

Catharine de Medici and the Guises.

The queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, allied herself with the Guises for the time, and patiently waited for an opportune moment to overthrow them and to take their place as the real ruler of France. The reign of Francis II. began with a relentless persecution of the Huguenots, thus arousing a spirit of determined resistance. The Guises were held responsible for the cruelties inflicted upon the French Protestants; and, as that family was a younger branch of the reigning ducal dynasty of Lorraine, which owed allegiance to the Germano-Roman Empire, they were regarded in France as foreigners.

Persecution of the Huguenots.

Political and Religious Parties in France.

The arrogance of the Guises made many enemies for them even among the Roman Catholics of France, and the party which opposed that powerful family was largely a national party, so that France was divided as much by political as religious dissensions. The old feudal nobility of France and the highest princes of the blood royal were on the side of the Huguenots; while the Guises were supported by the queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, and by the powerful influence of Pope Paul IV. and Philip II. of Spain.

The Huguenots and the Conspiracy of Amboise.

The national party, which favored the Huguenots, or at least general toleration in religious faith, resented the persecuting policy of the Guises, not alone for its inhumanity, but also as the impertinent interference of foreigners. The national party demanded that the States-General be assembled, but the government refused this demand. Thereupon the Huguenots organized the *Conspiracy of Amboise* to drive the Guises from power and try them for maladministration, to summon the States-General, to get the young king into their own possession and to make Antoine de Bourbon regent. The plot was betrayed; and the Guises took a bloody vengeance upon their enemies, causing twelve hundred persons to be executed for complicity in the conspiracy.

Twelve Hundred Executions.

Huguenot Reaction.

The cruelties of the Guises caused a reaction throughout France in favor of the Huguenots, and really strengthened that sect instead of

Edict of Romorantin.

destroying it. The queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, now advocated milder counsels, and caused Michel de l'Hopital to be appointed Chancellor. His first act was to secure the publication of the *Edict of Romorantin*, committing the punishment of heresy to the bishops exclusively. As this prevented the establishment of the Inquisition in France, it was really a gain for the French Reformers.

The Guises and the Huguenot Leaders.

King Francis II. also agreed to summon the States-General, which had not been convened for seventy-six years. These concessions greatly elated the Huguenots, who began to entertain hopes of overthrowing the Guises after all. The Guises were resolved upon destroying the King of Navarre and the Prince of Condé, the leaders of the movement against them; and, after obtaining evidence implicating these Protestant leaders in the Conspiracy of Amboise, they caused the Prince of Condé to be arrested and sentenced; but the sudden death of Francis II., December 5, 1560, saved the Bourbon princes from death.

Death of Francis II.

Overthrow of the Guises in Scotland.

In the meantime the dominion of the Guises had been overthrown in Scotland by the surrender of Leith to a combined Scottish and English army, after a long and severe siege, during which Mary of Guise, the queen-regent of Scotland, had died; and by the Treaty of Edinburgh the French evacuated Scotland, and Queen Mary Stuart and her husband, Francis II. of France, were forced to drop the arms and title of King and Queen of England, A. D. 1560.

Treaty of Edinburgh.

Charles IX., A. D. 1560–1574.

CHARLES IX., a boy of nine years, succeeded his brother Francis II. as King of France; and the queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, became regent for her little son without opposition. The supremacy of the Guises in France was shaken by the new turn of affairs, and the leaders of the Huguenot party came into power. Catharine de Medici spared the lives of the Bourbon princes; so that, by playing off one party against the other, she might maintain her own ascendency. By holding the balance of power evenly between the two parties and by allowing neither to predominate, the queen-regent hoped to strengthen her own power. As the King of Navarre had resigned his claims to the regency in France, she appointed him Lieutenant-General of the kingdom, and released the Prince of Condé from prison and assigned him a place at her council board.

Catharine de Medici and the Huguenot Leaders.

The States-General.

The States-General assembled at Orleans, December 13, 1560; but, as they were startled by the enormity of the public debt, they declared that they could accomplish nothing, and were dissolved in January, 1561. On the same day the Edict of Orleans granted most of the reforms which the Huguenots had demanded, and put a stop to religious persecution. For a while the queen-regent, Catharine de Medici, offended by the arrogance of the Guises, courted the favor of the Huguenots.

Edict of Orleans.

Catholic Triumvirate.

The Constable Montmorenci, who had always been a friend of Spain and a devoted Catholic, now united with Francis, Duke of Guise, and Marshal St. André in a *Triumvirate* for the suppression of heresy; but, as the drift of affairs was then against them, they retired from court.

The States-General against the Guises.

The States-General convened again in August, 1561, after a new election in which the Huguenots were victorious. This new States-General confirmed Catharine de Medici in the regency; but insisted that no cardinal should be a member of the Council of Regency, because he owed allegiance to a foreign sovereign, the Pope; that no bishop should be admitted into the same council, because the law required him to reside within his diocese; and that no *foreigner*—meaning the Guises—should have a place in the council.

Religious Conference at Poissy.

Theodore Beza.

An important conference of divines was held at Poissy, in September, 1561, in the presence of the boy king, Charles IX.; his mother, the queen-regent, Catharine de Medici; Antoine de Bourbon and Jeanne d'Albret, the King and Queen of Navarre; and many prelates and theologians. Theodore Beza, of Geneva, Calvin's co-laborer in the Reformation, made so favorable an impression upon the court by his eloquence, fearlessness and noble demeanor that the queen-regent requested him to remain in France, in the hope that his presence might contribute to peace and a better understanding between the two parties which divided the kingdom.

Huguenot Excesses.

Disturbances.

The Catholics of France bitterly resisted the concessions to the Huguenots, who were so elated by their success that they were led into some serious errors. Wherever the Huguenots found themselves in the majority they forcibly took possession of the churches, and profaned the altars and destroyed the images of the Virgin and the saints. The Catholic leaders took advantage of these Protestant outrages to excite the alarm of their party, and serious disturbances broke out in different parts of the kingdom.

Edict of Toleration.

Catharine de Medici and the Huguenot Leaders.

In January, 1562, an *Edict of Toleration*, prepared by the Presidents and Councilors of the Parliaments of France, officially recognized the Calvinistic Church and permitted the Huguenots to congregate unarmed by daylight for worship in the suburbs of towns, though not within the walls. The queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, in granting this Edict of Toleration, was supported by the Prince of Condé, the Châtillons and the Chancellor Michel de l'Hopital. The Huguenots were, however, required to restore the church property which they had seized, and to desist from preaching against Roman Catholicism.

Catholic Opposition.

The gulf between the Catholics and the Huguenots was too deep to be closed so easily. The Catholic leaders, particularly the Guises, whose zeal for the Roman Church was equalled by their ambition, pre-

pared for an appeal to arms, and were satisfied with nothing less than the complete submission of the Huguenot party. The Triumvirate therefore resolved to forcibly oppose the Edict of Toleration.

Demand of Philip II.

Philip II. of Spain wrote to his mother-in-law, Catharine de Medici, that she must purify France with fire and sword, or the pestilence of heresy would overspread Spain and the Netherlands. The weak-minded King of Navarre was won over to the Catholic side by promises of the island of Sardinia or of a marriage with the young widowed Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots.

Defection of the King of Navarre.

Francis, Duke of Guise, and the Catholic Party.

Francis, Duke of Guise, who had retired into Lorraine and was collecting troops, was so greatly alarmed by the Edict of Toleration that he resolved to return to Paris, where his presence was impatiently awaited by the Catholic party. He therefore started for Paris at the head of two hundred cavalry.

Massacre of Vassy.

On a Sunday morning the Duke of Guise halted at the village of Vassy, in the county of Champagne, one of the possessions of the Guise family. A congregation of Huguenots were then assembled for religious worship in a large barn near the village, and the Duke of Guise marched his attendants to the barn to break up the meeting. The Huguenots were unarmed, and endeavored to close the doors of the barn; but the duke's men broke open the doors and rushed in. The intruders were received with a volley of stones, one of which struck the duke on the cheek. He instantly ordered his men to exterminate the heretics, and his command was obeyed to the letter. More than two hundred and fifty of the Huguenots were killed and wounded, and the entire congregation would have suffered such a fate had not the Duchess of Guise earnestly and pitifully implored her husband to stop the massacre.

The Duke of Guise and Catharine de Medici.

The Duke of Guise then proceeded to Paris, where he was welcomed with enthusiasm as the champion of the Catholic religion in France. The queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, foreseeing the consequences of the massacre at Vassy, and unwilling again to become subject to the power of the Guises, made an effort to escape with her son, King Charles IX., from Paris; but she was overtaken by the Duke of Guise with an armed force at Fontainebleau, and was compelled to return with the boy king to the Louvre. Thenceforth Francis, Duke of Guise, was the real master of France as long as he lived.

First Civil and Religious War.

The massacre at Vassy was the signal for a furious civil and religious war; and for the next thirty-six years (A. D. 1562–1598), with various periods of intermission, France was deluged with the blood of her own people. Other dreadful massacres in various parts of France followed that of Vassy. So many were slaughtered at Tours that the banks of the Loire were covered with corpses for some distance.

Theodore Beza and the King of Navarre.

Theodore Beza hastened to the court to remonstrate. The King of Navarre, who was present, held the Huguenots wholly responsible. Beza replied in these memorable words: "I admit, Sire, that it is the part of God's Church, in whose name I speak, to endure rather than inflict blows; but may it please you to remember that it is an anvil which has worn out many a hammer."

Catholics Aided by Philip II. of Spain, the Duke of Savoy and Pope Pius IV.

Both parties sought foreign aid in the civil war which ensued. The Prince of Condé and the Huguenots wore the colors of King Charles IX., and announced their design to deliver him from the power of the Guises; but the Triumvirate and their partisans wore the red scarf of Spain. King Philip II. offered thirty-six thousand Spanish troops; but the Catholic leaders besought money instead, as they feared the hostility which a Spanish invasion would bring upon their cause. The Duke of Savoy led his own troops to the aid of the French Roman Catholics, and Pope Pius IV. contributed one hundred thousand crowns to the cause of that party. Queen Elizabeth of England contributed an equal sum of money to hire German mercenaries for the Huguenots, and sent six thousand English troops to join the Huguenot armies. The Huguenots gave up Havre to her officers as security for the restitution of Calais.

Huguenots Aided by Queen Elizabeth.

Siege of Orleans.

Many of the principal towns in France declared for the Huguenots. Orleans became their capital and was blockaded by the armies of the Catholic party. The King of Navarre was mortally wounded at the siege of Rouen. In the battle of Dreux—the first conflict of any magnitude in this series of bloody civil-religious wars—the Prince of Condé and the Constable Montmorenci, the respective leaders of the Huguenot and Catholic armies, were both taken prisoners.

Battle of Dreux.

Assassination of Francis, Duke of Guise.

Admiral Coligni then became the leader of the Huguenots; while Francis, Duke of Guise, remained as the sole head of the Catholic party, and even dreamed of becoming the successor of Charles IX. on the throne of France; but his ambitious schemes were cut short by his assassination by a fanatical Protestant, who stealthily shot him from behind during the siege of Orleans, February, 1563. With his dying breath, the Duke of Guise advised the queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, to make peace with the Huguenots.

Peace of Amboise.

The queen-mother was the one who gained most by the assassination of the Duke of Guise, as her real administration of the regency then commenced. The first religious war in France was closed by the Peace of Amboise, in March, 1563, by which the nobles and great vassals of the French crown, with their retainers and subjects, secured religious toleration. This was a mere hollow truce, as we shall presently see. The Catholic party accused Admiral Coligni of instigating the assassination of the Duke of Guise, but Coligni denied the charge.

Huguenot Colonies in North America.

Admiral Coligni had promoted maritime enterprise and colonization in America; and the first settlements within the limits of the present United States had been made under his auspices, though these settlements had a very transient existence. In 1562 a colony of Huguenots under Jean Ribault settled at Port Royal and built Fort Carolina, so named after King Charles IX.; but the settlement was soon abandoned. In 1564 another Huguenot colony under Laudonniere settled on the St. John's River, in Florida, where they erected a second Fort Carolina. Pedro Melendez de Avilez, a cruel Spaniard, commissioned for the purpose by King Philip II., massacred these Huguenot settlers. "Not as Frenchmen, but as heretics." Dominic de Gourgues, a fiery Gascon Huguenot soldier, fitted out an expedition, sailed to Florida, surprised the Spanish forts near the ruins of Fort Carolina in 1568, and hanged the garrisons on trees, placing over them the inscription: "Not as Spaniards and mariners, but as traitors, robbers and murderers."

Massacred by Spaniards of Florida.

Huguenot Revenge.

Charles IX. and Catharine de Medici.

As King Charles IX. had reached his fourteenth year in 1564 he was declared to have attained his majority, and he nominally assumed the government of France, but relinquished all real power to his mother, Catharine de Medici. He passed all of the year 1564 in visiting the various parts of the kingdom with her. While at Bayonne she was visited by her daughter Elizabeth, the wife of King Philip II. of Spain, attended by the Duke of Alva, Philip's confidential Minister. Many secret conferences were held between Catharine de Medici and the Duke of Alva, believed to have had reference to the speedy extinction of heresy in France and the Netherlands.

Secret Conferences with the Duke of Alva.

Second Civil and Religious War.

These conferences were known to the Huguenot leaders; and when the Duke of Alva began his persecutions in the Netherlands, in 1567, the Huguenots believed that their own doom had been decided upon by the French court. They therefore attempted to get the young king into their power, thus bringing on the second religious war in France, A. D. 1567. The Huguenots were defeated in the battle of St. Denis, near Paris, by the Catholics under the Constable Montmorenci, who was killed in the moment of victory, November, 1567.

Battle of St. Denis.

Catharine de Medici and the Duke of Anjou.

No new Constable was appointed; but Catharine de Medici appointed her favorite son, the Duke of Anjou, Lieutenant-General of the kingdom; that office having been made vacant by the death of Antoine de Bourbon, King of Navarre, at the siege of Rouen, in 1562. Catharine, however, retained the control of the royal armies in her own hands.

"Lame Peace."

Third Civil and Religious War.

The second civil and religious war in France was ended by the "Lame Peace," in 1568; but hostilities broke out a third time in 1569, and raged with greater fury than before. The Huguenots were defeated at Jarnac, March 13, 1569; their leader, the Prince of Condé,

being wounded and taken prisoner, and assassinated after his surrender. The death of this able leader was a great loss to the Huguenots. His son Henry, who was then very young, afterward became one of the greatest of the Huguenot generals.

Assassination of the Prince of Conde.

After the assassination of the Prince of Condé the Huguenots promptly recognized young King Henry of Navarre, the son and successor of Antoine de Bourbon, as their leader; but the veteran Admiral Coligni retained the command of the Huguenot armies. The Huguenots suffered a more severe and decisive defeat at Moncontour, October 3, 1569, losing twelve thousand men; but their arms were generally successful in 1570, and the Catholics were depressed in turn. Catharine de Medici was now weary of the war; and her interests required peace, as she hoped to marry her third favorite son, Henry, Duke of Anjou, to Queen Elizabeth of England; while the skillful generalship of Admiral Coligni menaced Paris.

King Henry of Navarre and Admiral Coligni.

Catharine de Medici and Duke Henry of Anjou.

The third civil and religious war was ended by the Peace of St. Germain, August 8, 1570, by which the Huguenots were granted full toleration for their worship throughout France, except in Paris, and equal civil and political rights with the Catholics. As a guarantee for the faithful execution of the treaty, the Huguenots were allowed to garrison four cities—La Rochelle, Montauban, Cognac and Le Charité—with their troops for two years. Catharine de Medici granted these terms very reluctantly, and they were wrung from her by the Huguenot successes. The Catholic party in France was bitterly hostile to the treaty, and King Philip II. of Spain and Pope Pius V. remonstrated strongly against it as humiliating to the Roman Church.

Peace of St. Germain.

Concessions to the Huguenots.

Catharine de Medici merely wanted a respite from the civil war to enable her to reëstablish the royal authority in France, which had been seriously impaired by the long religious strife. She wished to strike a crushing blow at the Huguenots sooner or later, which she hoped would utterly destroy them. But for the time she executed the terms of the Peace of St. Germain in good faith, and for two years she showed so much favor to the Huguenots that Pope Pius V. began to regard her as an apostate from the Roman Catholic faith.

Catharine de Medici and the Huguenots.

The death of Elizabeth, the queen of Philip II. of Spain, for a time dissolved the friendly relations between her husband and her brother, young King Charles IX. of France. The revolt of the Netherlands against the tyrannical and persecuting policy of Philip II. also tempted Charles IX. to annex the four Walloon provinces of the Netherlands to the Kingdom of France, of which they had formerly been fiefs, and thus extend the French frontier on the north to the Scheldt. Though this secret scheme never brought on any open hostilities between France and Spain, Charles IX. gave his security to a loan

Growing Coldness between the Kings of France and Spain.

negotiated by Admiral Coligni and Count Louis of Nassau, the brother of Prince William of Orange, for the rebels of the Netherlands.

**The Huguenots and Their Stronghold, La Rochelle.**

The Peace of St. Germain gave France a respite from the horrors of civil and religious strife for nearly two years, and the Huguenots were lulled into a delusive feeling of security by the conduct of Catharine de Medici and her son, King Charles IX. La Rochelle was the Huguenot stronghold and capital, where Queen Jeanne d'Albret of Navarre, the widow of Antoine de Bourbon, held her court and the Calvinistic Church of France its synods, undisturbed by the Guises or by the young King of France and his mother.

**Proposed Marriage of King Henry of Navarre with Margaret of Valois.**

To throw the Huguenots still further off their guard, Catharine de Medici now proposed that, in order to cement the new bonds of good feeling between the religious parties in France, her daughter, Margaret of Valois, should marry Prince Henry of Bearn, the young King of Navarre, the son of Antoine de Bourbon and his queen, Jeanne d'Albret, and the recognized leader of the Huguenot party. Jeanne, who was a woman of good sense, and who had reared her son in the Calvinistic faith, received Catharine's proposal with distrust; but Admiral Coligni and some of the other Huguenot leaders won her over to the scheme, though they did not have much faith in the queen-mother's professed friendship for their party. They believed that the proposed marriage might be a benefit to France.

**Henry's Protestantism an Obstacle.**

After the consent of all parties had been obtained there remained only one obstacle in the way of the proposed royal marriage. Young King Henry of Navarre was a Protestant, and the Princess Margaret was a Catholic. No Roman Catholic priest could celebrate a marriage between such a couple without a special dispensation from the Pope, and when Pius V. was applied to for such a dispensation he unhesitatingly and resolutely refused it.

**Opposition to the Marriage.**

King Charles IX. was very anxious for the marriage, and declared that if Pope Pius V. would not consent to the match he would have his sister married by a Huguenot preacher in "open conventicle." A dispensation was then procured. Vauvilliers, in his *Histoire de Jeanne D'Albret*, says that Catharine de Medici forged it. But the marriage was unpopular, and the Catholic party in France fomented the discontent which it aroused to the highest degree.

**Admiral Coligni Honored by King Charles IX.**

In the meantime Admiral Coligni had overcome his feeling of distrust and gone to court, and he was received with marked favor by King Charles IX. at Blois. Coligni's noble character won the young king's esteem; and the admiral was loaded with honors, wealth and tokens of the king's affectionate confidence. Coligni used the power thus conferred upon him by seeking to unite all sects and parties in France against the arrogant influence of King Philip II. of Spain.

Several months afterward Jeanne d'Albret, the Queen of Navarre, followed Coligni's example by going to the French court.

Plot against Coligni and the Huguenot Leaders.

Coligni's influence over Charles IX. alarmed the young king's mother, who resolved upon the speedy destruction of the great Huguenot leader. She therefore cordially united with the Guises, who did their utmost to inflame the animosity of the Catholics toward the Huguenots. The leading men of the Huguenot party were invited to Paris to participate in the marriage festivities, in order that they might be within reach of the vengeance of Catharine de Medici and her accomplices in the conspiracy. The court courteously received and handsomely entertained these Huguenot leaders.

Suspicious Death of Queen Jeanne d'Albret of Navarre.

Shortly before the time appointed for the marriage of young King Henry of Navarre with the Princess Margaret, his mother, Queen Jeanne d'Albret, died at Paris, July 9, 1572, believed to have been poisoned by order of Catharine de Medici. The Catholic historian Davila says that she was poisoned, and that she was exempted from the wholesale massacre which followed because she was of royal blood. Many Huguenots took warning from her death and fled from Paris. Coligni was urged by his friends to leave Paris in time, but he had full confidence in the king's word.

French Troops Aid the Revolted Netherlanders.

Early in the summer of 1572 King Charles IX. sent a military force into the county of Flanders to aid the patriots of that Netherland province in their revolt against Philip II. of Spain. This French force achieved some successes at first, but finally sustained a reverse; whereupon it became necessary to decide upon the future policy of France with respect to the struggle in the Netherlands. Admiral Coligni and the Huguenot party were in favor of an immediate declaration of war against Spain; but Catharine de Medici and the Guises opposed such a course, and this made the queen-mother the more determined upon the execution of her plan.

Catharine de Medici's Confidants.

Catharine de Medici's principal confidants in her atrocious plot were her son Henry, afterward King Henry III. of France, Duke Henry of Guise, Marshal de Tavannes, the Count de Retz and the Duke of Nevers. These conspirators deliberately planned and executed the atrocious massacres which followed, by which consternation and disgust were aroused in all Protestant Europe and among many Catholics everywhere.

Marriage of King Henry of Navarre with Margaret of Valois.

Young King Henry of Navarre and the Princess Margaret of Valois were married at Paris by the Cardinal de Bourbon, August 18, 1572. The Catholic party of France were intensely exasperated by this royal marriage, and Paris began to be pervaded with ominous rumors. The French court abandoned itself to feasting and revelry, but the queen-mother and her confederates were diligently preparing for the execu-

tion of their diabolical plot. The governor of Lyons received orders not to let the messenger who conveyed the tidings of the royal marriage proceed on his way to Rome until after August 24, St. Bartholomew's Day.

**Attempted Assassination of Admiral Coligni.**

The conspirators struck their first blow August 22, 1572, when the venerable Admiral Coligni was shot in the street and severely wounded by an assassin hired by Henry, Duke of Guise. King Charles IX. and his wicked mother visited the wounded Coligni in his bed-room, expressing great indignation at the attempt on his life, and declaring their determination to bring the assassin and his instigators to justice.

**His Warning.**

Coligni warned the young king of the pernicious effects of his mother's misgovernment, implored him to deprive her of power, and offered to support him in such a course with the entire force of the Huguenots.

**Charles IX. and the Conspirators.**

The young king went away very much affected by Coligni's words, and the conspirators were greatly alarmed. If Charles IX. remained faithful to Coligni they were lost, and they had gone too far to turn back. The masses, whose fanaticism they had inflamed to the highest degree, could not be restrained from violence; and the conspirators therefore determined to carry out their plot to its conclusion. They passed the day after his visit to Coligni in endeavoring to win the king over to the support of their fiendish plot. They excited the weak-minded king's alarm and wrath with rumors of Huguenot plots against him, and urged him to consent to the assassination of Admiral Coligni and the other Protestant leaders of France.

**Their Plans and Preparations.**

The young king, wrought up to the wildest fury by these accounts, declared that, as it was necessary to assassinate Coligni, not one Huguenot should escape with his life. The conspirators took Charles IX. at his word. It was agreed that Admiral Coligni should be the first to be murdered, and that his assassination should be followed by a general massacre of the Huguenots in Paris. The public arms in the royal arsenals were distributed among misled Catholic citizens, who were to wear white scarfs around their left arms and white crosses on their hats to distinguish them from the Huguenots. The detachments from the suburbs were called in to reinforce the royal guards. During the whole of August 23d the Catholic leaders were assiduously engaged in posting their forces and in preparing the citizens of Paris to make common cause with them in the bloody task to be executed.

**Assassination of Admiral Coligni.**

Between three and four o'clock in the morning of August 24, 1572—St. Bartholomew's Day—Henry, Duke of Guise, attacked the house of Admiral Coligni, who was murdered in his bed by one of the duke's men.

**Bells Rung as Signals.**

As soon as Catharine de Medici was informed of the great Huguenot leader's assassination she ordered the priests of the Church of St. Germain l'Auxerrois to ring their bell as the signal agreed upon

for the massacre to begin. Instantly every church bell in the city rang the call for the commencement of the horrible task of slaughter.

Massacre of St. Bartholomew.

Paris, which before had been so silent and peaceful, instantly became a prey to confusion and strife. Lights gleamed from all houses; multitudes of armed men filled the streets; and instantly, as if myriads of wild beasts had been let loose, the city resounded with the demoniac yells of the murderers and the despairing cries of the victims. The Huguenots had been marked; and, as they were utterly taken by surprise, they were unable to defend themselves. Catharine de Medici and her attendants viewed the massacre from the palace windows, from which her son, King Charles IX., it is said, himself shot at some of the poor victims in the streets. The Prince of Condé and King Henry of Navarre narrowly escaped assassination, but their attendants were massacred in the courtyard of the Louvre.

The Massacre in Paris and Throughout France.

The slaughter went on in Paris for eight days and nights, sparing neither age, sex nor condition, and spread throughout France in six weeks. The king's orders for the extension of the massacre to other parts of France had been well obeyed, and the same bloody scenes which had made the capital a field of slaughter were enacted in many other towns of France—at Rouen, Orleans, Bourges, Troyes, Lyons, Toulouse and Bordeaux. Some of the Catholic commanders, however, refused to obey the king's orders; and one of them wrote to the court that he commanded soldiers, not assassins.

Number of Victims.

Such was the dreadful *Massacre of St. Bartholomew,* whose number of victims is variously estimated by different writers at from ten thousand to one hundred thousand. The estimate of the Duke of Sully was about seventy thousand; that of De Thou was about thirty thousand.

The Massacre as a Political Blunder.

No sooner had the massacre ceased than Catharine de Medici and her accomplices in the conspiracy discovered that they had committed a terrible political blunder, as the consequences were quite different from what the French court had expected. Many Roman Catholics renounced their religion and became Huguenots from a feeling of horror and shame.

Plans to Shift Responsibility for the Massacre.

Catharine de Medici and her fellow-conspirators endeavored to throw the responsibility for the massacre upon Duke Henry of Guise, but that nobleman refused to bear such blame; and they finally persuaded young King Charles IX. to declare before the Parliament of Paris that he was responsible for the massacre, that it was a political and not a religious act, and that it was necessary in order to suppress a dangerous Huguenot conspiracy, so that it was done in self-defense. Salviati, the Papal Nuncio at Paris, pronounced this declaration "false in every respect."

How the Massacre Was Viewed Throughout Europe.

The Massacre of St. Bartholomew occasioned surprise in other countries of Europe, but excited very different feelings at the various courts. Upon receiving Catharine de Medici's letter informing him of the massacre, the merciless Philip II. of Spain is said to have laughed for the only time in his life. His cousin, the good Emperor Maximilian II. of Germany, though a true Catholic, wept at the horrid crime. Queen Elizabeth of England received the French ambassador in a hall draped with funeral black, and without a word being spoken; so that the discomfited envoy, after having advanced through silent rows of black-robed figures, was obliged to depart as he came, without being permitted to offer his explanations. Pope Gregory XIII. celebrated the massacre as a Catholic victory, by the firing of a triumphal salute from the Castle of St. Angelo, a brilliant illumination of Rome, and a *Te Deum* in the Cathedral of St. Peter's, in which the Pope and the cardinals assisted, the Pope offering thanks to God for "this signal mercy." Gregory XIII. ordered a medal to be struck commemorating the event, and caused the Hall of Kings in the Vatican to be adorned with a fresco representing the massacre. At Geneva, St. Bartholomew's Day was appointed to be observed annually as a solemn fast.

Fourth Civil and Religious War.

The Massacre of St. Bartholomew led to a renewal of hostilities, and the fourth civil-religious war burst forth with a fury surpassing the three previous struggles. The Huguenot outbreak was directed by the Prince of Condé, who had succeded in making his escape from court.

Peace and Toleration.

The royal army engaged in an unsuccessful siege of La Rochelle, the Huguenot stronghold. A treaty of peace, in July, 1573, allowed freedom of conscience and worship to the Huguenots in La Rochelle, Montauban and Nismes.

Remorse and Death of King Charles IX.

Charles IX. at one time endeavored to put the whole responsibility for the great crime on the Guises; and the next moment he confessed the part he had taken, and expressed joy at what he considered a blow at heresy; but, from the time of the massacre, he was troubled with remorse and grief at his participation in the horrible crime. He imagined frequently that he saw the bloody forms of the massacred Protestants before his eyes; he had no rest night or day, and he was known often to sigh and to bemoan himself with tears. His health rapidly declined, and his miserable life was terminated at the age of twenty-three, May 30, 1574.

Henry III., A. D. 1574-1589.

Charles IX. was succeeded as King of France by his next brother, Henry III., who had been elected King of Poland the preceding year, 1573; and the queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, acted as regent until her son's return from Poland. As Henry had left refined Paris for barbarous Poland with the utmost reluctance, he now returned to the French capital to take possession of his native, hereditary and more

PAINTERS OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

2. Raphael, 1483-1520
5. Holbein, 1498?-1543
1. Duerer, 1471-1528
4. Michael Angelo, 1474-1564
7. Titian, 1477-1576
3. Correggio, 1494-1534
6. Veronese, 1530-1588

delightful kingdom with the greatest satisfaction. He left Poland like a common thief, taking the Polish crown jewels with him, and was pursued sixty miles on horseback by many of the Polish nobles, who desired to secure their country from the anarchy which was sure to follow so sudden an abdication. As he passed through Italy the Duke a Savoy induced him to surrender Pignerol and the other fortresses which the French possessed in Piedmont.

**His Abdication as King of Poland and His Return to France.**

Henry III. was more contemptible and licentious than any of his brothers and predecessors, and did not possess the energy and talents requisite for the government of distracted France. At the beginning of his reign he announced his determination to make no concessions to the Huguenots, but he took no energetic or vigorous measures against them.

**His Bad Character.**

Henry III. married Louise de Vaudemont, a member of the Guise family—a marriage which augmented the power of the Guises, which was already too great for the security of the French crown. Duke Henry of Guise, the son and successor of Duke Francis, was now the head of that powerful family of Lorraine. Henry of Guise was brave, talented and popular, though on the whole he was inferior to his father. He had pretensions to the French crown in case Henry III. died without heirs, as that king was the last representative of the Valois dynasty. King Henry of Navarre, as the head of the Bourbon family, was the rightful heir to the French crown; but, as he was a Protestant, Duke Henry of Guise intended to contest his claim, basing his own pretensions on his descent from Charlemagne through Charles of Lorraine, the last of the Carlovingian dynasty.

**Henry III. and the Guises.**

**Rival Claims of Duke Henry of Guise and King Henry of Navarre.**

In spite of the efforts of the French court, the Huguenots had been strengthened by the events of 1573. The middle party, composed of just and moderate Catholics, under the leadership of the Montmorencies, were shocked by the crimes of the Guises and alarmed by the foreign alliances of that powerful and ambitious family.

**The Montmorenci Family.**

The consolidated monarchy which Louis XI. had built up so cautiously in France a century before seemed about to be dissolved into its feudal elements. La Rochelle, Montauban and Nismes—the Huguenot strongholds—were like independent republics. The provinces of Languedoc, Guienne, Poitou and others in the South-west of France united themselves in a league, which raised taxes, administered justice and directed military operations like a sovereign state. In every part of France governors of provinces and even commandants of towns and castles acted independently of the French crown.

**Threatened Dissolution of France.**

The points now in dispute were more political than religious, as most of the original Huguenot leaders were dead, exiled or apostate. Even King Henry of Navarre and the Prince of Condé reconciled themselves

**Loss of Protestant Leaders.**

with the Roman Catholic Church the year after the Massacre of St. Bartholomew, though insincerely.

**New Protestant Leaders.**

The Duke of Alençon, the only surviving brother of King Henry III., now declared himself the protector of the Huguenots, and joined their army in the county of Poitou. The Prince-Palatine, John Casimir, who was also their ally, marched into France with an army of eighteen thousand men for their assistance.

**"Peace of Monsieur."**

*La paix de Monsieur*, "the Peace of Monsieur,"—so called in honor of the conventional title of the king's eldest brother—was concluded in May, 1576, and was the most favorable treaty that the Huguenots had yet obtained from the French court, as it granted perfect religious freedom throughout France, except at Paris and in the immediate precincts of the court, wherever it might be.

**Changes of Territory.**

By this treaty the Duke of Alençon received the provinces of Anjou, Touraine and Berry in full sovereignty; and he thenceforth bore the title of Duke of Anjou. After thus gaining all that he expected from his alliance with the Huguenots he deserted them, and afterward commanded an army against them. The treaty restored the duchy of Guienne to King Henry of Navarre, and assigned the county of Picardy to the Prince of Condé, while also reinstating all the Huguenot leaders in their offices and pensions.

**The Catholic League.**

The Catholics regarded the treaty as humiliating to France and to the Roman Church; and their discontent led to the formation of the *Catholic League* by the Catholic nobles of France, headed by Duke Henry of Guise. All the members of the Catholic League signed a formula promising "unlimited obedience to its head without respect of persons" and without reservation of the royal supremacy.

**Its Aim and Its Alliance with Philip II.**

Though the Catholic League was organized nominally to maintain the royal authority in France, its real aim was to establish the power of Duke Henry of Guise more firmly. The treasonable nature of the league became apparent only afterward when it placed itself under the protection of a foreign sovereign, Philip II. of Spain.

**Its Plot in Favor of Duke Henry of Guise.**

But a plot was already formed at Rome to seize and arraign the Duke of Anjou, exterminate the Huguenots, confine the incompetent King Henry III. in prison like the *Rois Fainéants* of the Merovingian dynasty, and place Duke Henry of Guise himself upon the French throne as a descendant of Charlemagne. This plot was discovered among the papers of a lawyer named David, who died at Lyons while returning to Rome; but it was regarded as a malicious fabrication of the Huguenots until the French ambassador in Spain forwarded to France another copy, which he had obtained from King Philip II.

**Henry III. and the League.**

King Henry III. was so alarmed by this evidence of the real designs of the Catholic League that he knew of no better way to avert its

enemity than to place himself at its head. The States-General were already summoned to assemble at Blois early in the winter of 1577.

The Catholic League and the States-General.

The manifesto of the Catholic League was laid before the States-General, after being cleared of all expressions which seemed to limit or contest the royal prerogative. Some of the deputies signed it, but others refused. All were offended by the undignified position in which King Henry III. had placed himself by his cowardice, and refused to vote supplies to continue the war. The terms of the "Peace of Monsieur" were really too favorable to the Huguenots to have been sincerely guaranteed by the French court; and the Huguenots had been extending their conquests in the South-west of France, even while the States-General were in session.

Peace of Bergerac.

In September, 1577, the Peace of Bergerac closed the fifth civil-religious war in France, greatly curtailing the religious privileges granted to the Huguenots. Notwithstanding the perils which still menaced his throne, King Henry III. gave himself up more completely than ever before to base and frivolous amusements. The orgies of his court were paralleled only by that of the Roman Emperors in their deepest degradation. Luxury and violence held unbridled sway, and murders were almost of daily occurrence. The hostility of the Guises rendered it necessary for the king to remain at peace with the Huguenots.

Licentiousness of Henry III.

Catharine de Medici and King Henry of Navarre.

In the summer of 1578 Catharine de Medici, in company with her daughter, Queen Margaret of Navarre, and a "flying squadron" of court-beauties, visited Margaret's husband, King Henry of Navarre, in his capital, and passed more than a year in the South of France, employing all her Italian arts to pacify and conciliate the Huguenots.

Peace of Nerac.

The Peace of Nérac, in February, 1579, secretly granted greater favors to the Huguenots than had been allowed them by that of Bergerac, and closed the sixth civil-religious war in France.

"War of the Lovers."

In the spring of 1580 the seventh war of religion broke out, called the *War of the Lovers*, on account of its whimsical origin. It was closed by the mediation of the Duke of Anjou, who was anxious to assume the protectorate of the Netherlands, which the insurgents of those states offered him; while the French court found cause for a rupture with Philip II. of Spain in the sudden and alarming increase of his power by the conquest of Portugal.

Mediation and Peace.

The Duke of Anjou in the Netherlands.

In 1581 the Duke of Anjou, with the consent of his brother, King Henry III., led a French army into the Netherlands to assist the Flemish patriots in their revolt against Philip II. of Spain. He captured Cambray from Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma. The Duke of Anjou was a suitor for the hand of Queen Elizabeth of England, whose alliance was of the greatest importance to the revolted Nether-

lands. He was cordially welcomed by the Flemings, and was proclaimed Duke of Brabant and Count of Flanders. But when Queen Elizabeth refused to marry him his popularity suddenly vanished. He soon afterward attempted to make himself absolute master of Flanders, and was driven back into France by the indignant Flemings. He died of disease and disappointment in June, 1584.

**Relations of Philip II. of Spain, Henry III. of France and Henry of Navarre.**

In retaliation for the interference of the French court in Spanish affairs, Philip II. entered into a closer alliance with the Guises, who, in his interest, had watched and endeavored to thwart the French expedition sent to the Azores in the interest of Dom Antonio. When this failed, the King of Spain tried the other party, and repeatedly offered money to King Henry of Navarre to renew hostilities against King Henry III. of France. The King of Navarre rejected the Spanish king's overtures; and the death of the Duke of Anjou, in June, 1584, had the effect of drawing closer the relations between the two King Henries; for Henry of Navarre, as the head of the House of Bourbon, now became the heir-presumptive to the French throne.

**Alliance of the Catholic League with Philip II.**

The death of the Duke of Anjou also encouraged the aspirations of Duke Henry of Guise, and caused a renewal of the Catholic League under the protection of Philip II. of Spain. The chiefs of the league and the envoys of the King of Spain signed a formal treaty at Paris in December, 1584, some of the prominent articles of which were the "extirpation of all Protestant and heretical sects in the Netherlands, as well as in France, and the exclusion of heretical princes from the throne."

**Manifesto of the Catholic League.**

Philip II. promised the league a subsidy of fifty thousand crowns a month. Pope Gregory XIII. sustained the treaty; and a manifesto was issued in the name of the Cardinal de Bourbon, a very weak man, whom Duke Henry of Guise supported as the legitimate heir to the French crown, in order to conceal his own designs. This manifesto also declared the object of the Catholic League to be the defense of the Catholic religion.

**Henry III. and the Catholic League.**

King Henry III., alarmed by the movements of the Catholic League, but not daring to break with Philip II. of Spain, refused the petition of the states of the Netherlands which besought his protection in their revolt against the Spanish king; and by the *Edict of Nemours* he acceded to all the demands of the Catholic League. Henry III. revoked all previous edicts of toleration, and warned all Huguenots to leave France within six months. Thus Henry III. was forced to become the ally of the very men who were seeking to destroy his throne.

**Edict of Nemours.**

**"War of the Three Henries."**

Pope Sixtus V., upon his accession, in 1585, formally excommunicated King Henry of Navarre; and during that year the Huguenots took up arms in self-defense, under the leadership of King

Henry of Navarre, the Prince of Condé and the Duke of Montmorenci, against the forces of the Catholic League under Duke Henry of Guise and King Henry III. This was the eighth of this series of civil and religious wars, and was called the *War of the Three Henries.*

Catholic Plot against Henry III.

Though nominally an ally of the Catholic League, King Henry III. at heart wished for its defeat, because its success meant his ruin. Early in 1587 a plot for the king's dethronement was detected in Paris. But the power of Duke Henry of Guise was so great that the weak king dared not take any action against him. The shallowness of the king's character became more apparent than ever before. While his kingdom was distracted with these fierce dissensions he amused himself with his dogs, monkeys and parrots, or in foolish and fantastic entertainments which drained his already-exhausted treasury.

His Bad and Weak Character.

German Aid to the Huguenots.

In the meantime King Henry of Navarre gained a great victory over the royal army at Coutras; but, as he neglected to follow up his success, a large German army under John Casimir, the Prince-Palatine, sent into France to assist the Huguenots, was surprised and defeated with heavy loss by Duke Henry of Guise in Anneau. The exasperated peasantry came to the assistance of the Duke of Guise in harassing the retreat of the Germans and massacring all whom they took prisoners.

Henry III. Defied by Duke Henry of Guise.

King Henry III. had forbidden the leaders of the Catholic League to enter Paris. But Duke Henry of Guise came in spite of the king's orders, and was received with shouts of welcome by the Parisian populace, whose idol he had ever been. The king, pale with rage and terror, asked the duke why he had disobeyed his express orders; and the duke replied that he had come to defend himself against the accusations of his enemies.

"Day of the Barricades."

Paris was now divided into two hostile camps, and the Hotel de Guise was guarded by the mob as constantly as the Louvre was by the king's troops. The strength of Duke Henry of Guise was so evident that King Henry III. ordered several thousand of his Swiss mercenaries to enter the city. This occasioned a general popular outbreak in Paris, known as the *Day of the Barricades,* which was incited by the Catholic League. The king fled in terror to Chartres; and the Duke of Guise assumed the powers of dictator, overawed the Parliament of Paris, filled all civil and military offices with his own partisans, and seized and fortified the towns in the vicinity of Paris to prevent surprise. The triumphant Guise party established a revolutionary government in Paris under a *Council of Sixteen,* which held the city for six years.

Duke Henry of Guise and the Council of Sixteen.

Edict of Union.

Duke Henry of Guise was not yet prepared to raise the standard of open rebellion, and commenced negotiating with King Henry III. After some hesitation, the king was forced to sign an *Edict of Union,* at Rouen, in July, 1588, granting all the demands of the Catholic

League, one of which was a convocation of the States-General, which the Duke of Guise intended should legalize his usurpation of power and place the king under his control. The Duke of Guise became Lieutenant-General of the kingdom, and Henry III. was left as king only in name.

**Assassination of the Guises by Order of Henry III.**

Henry III. had been forced to accept the humiliating conditions of the Catholic League by the stern necessities of the moment; but he had fully made up his mind to rid himself of the Guises, and he accordingly resolved upon their assassination. He invited Duke Henry of Guise to a consultation in the royal bed-chamber in the Castle of Blois, December 23, 1588; and the duke was assassinated by the royal guards as he was passing through the ante-chamber. The king brutally kicked the corpse of his murdered rival; after which he descended the stairs to the apartment below, where his aged mother, Catharine de Medici, lay dying, and saluted her with the words: "Now, Madam, I am once more King of France, for I have put to death the King of Paris." Louis of Guise, the Cardinal of Lorraine, was arrested and privately murdered in prison on Christmas Day, 1588, two days after his brother's assassination. Catharine de Medici died universally execrated, January 5, 1589.

**Action of the Sorbonne and the Parliament of Paris.**

The news of the assassination of the Guises threw Paris into an uproar. The Sorbonne—the great group of the learned of France—declared the French people released from their allegiance to King Henry III. The Parliament of Paris attempted to quiet the tumult, whereupon its members were imprisoned in the Bastile, and were only released when they confirmed the decision of the Sorbonne and promised to be the subservient instruments of the Council of Sixteen. After being purged of its refractory members, the Parliament appointed the Duke of Mayenne, a brother of the murdered Guises, Lieutenant- General of the kingdom; and the Duke of Aumale, another brother, was made commander of Paris.

**Henry III, the Catholic League and Pope Sixtus V.**

Between the Huguenots in the South of France and the Catholic League in the North, the wretched King Henry III. had only six towns on the Loire. He was in a desperate situation; as the Catholic League announced its intention to drive him from the throne of France; while Pope Sixtus V. summoned him to appear at Rome to answer for the murder of Louis of Guise, Cardinal of Lorraine, a prince of the Church.

**Alliance of Henry III. with Henry of Navarre.**

Henry III. was dismayed by the power arrayed against him; and, as the Catholic League refused to come to terms with him, he was obliged to throw himself without reserve into the arms of the Huguenots and to seek the alliance of King Henry of Navarre. After a personal conference at Plessis-les-Tours, in April, 1589, the two King

Henries joined their forces and laid siege to Paris with the intention to reducing the rebellious city to a heap of ruins.

Peril of the Catholic League and Paris.

This powerful combination of the Kings of France and Navarre was in a fair way to crush the Catholic League, and the leaders of the league clearly perceived the danger which menaced them. Paris was weakly garrisoned; and it was well known that upon the fall of the city, which was inevitable if the siege was vigorously prosecuted, King Henry III. would severely punish the citizens of the capital for their rebellion and for their many insults to him.

Catholic Plot against Henry III.

Terror increased the fanatical rage of the Parisians. Their priests and the leaders of the Catholic League, and the Duchess of Montpensier particularly, the sister of the murdered Guises, openly declared that the assassination of one or both of the King Henries was indispensable to save France and the Catholic religion. In this condition of sentiment an assassin was finally found in the person of Jacques Clement, an ignorant Dominican monk, who was made to believe that the murder of the King of France would bring great spiritual benefits to France, and so commend the assassin to the favor of Heaven.

Assassination of Henry III. by Jacques Clement.

It was known that the combined armies of the two King Henries had ordered an assault to be made on Paris on August 2, 1589; and Clement was hurried forward to his bloody task and prepared for it by the administration of the sacrament. He entered the camp of King Henry III. on August 1, 1589, obtained an audience with the king and stabbed him in the stomach. The assassin was instantly killed by the royal guards. Henry III. lingered until the next morning. Conscious that his end was at hand, he summoned his ally, King Henry of Navarre, to his bedside, acknowledged him as his successor on the throne of France, and induced the French nobles present to swear allegiance to him. Henry III. died between two and three o'clock on the morning of August 2, 1589. He was the last of the House of Valois. which had occupied the throne of France for two hundred and sixty-one years (A. D. 1328–1589), comprising the reigns of thirteen kings.

End of the Valois Dynasty.

Henry IV., First of the Bourbons, A. D. 1589–1610.

Thus the House of Bourbon ascended the throne of France in the person of King Henry of Navarre, who then became King Henry IV. of France, uniting permanently the crowns of France and Navarre. Thenceforth the Bourbon dynasty wore the crown of France for a little over two centuries, until the great French Revolution.

Opposition of the Catholic Nobles.

Although Henry IV. was the legitimate heir to the French crown, he had considerable difficulty in obtaining the recognition of his claims by the leaders of the royal forces engaged in the siege of Paris. The Catholic nobles manifested a disinclination to acknowledge a heretic as King of France, notwithstanding the oath they had taken in the pres-

ence of the dying King Henry III. They plainly told Henry IV. that he must become a Catholic in order to become King of France.

**Concessions of Henry IV. to the Catholics.**

Henry IV. at first remonstrated with dignity against this requirement; but he finally consented to submit to the instruction of a national council, and to give all essential guarantees for the protection of the Roman Catholic religion in France. The Catholic nobles agreed to recognize his title to the French crown on those conditions; and on August 4, 1589, Henry IV., as King of France and Navarre, signed a solemn declaration by which he bound himself to maintain the Catholic faith and the property and rights of the Catholic Church in France, to summon a lawful national council within six months and abide by its decisions, and to give the Catholics possession of all the fortresses and towns of France except those granted to the Huguenots by the last treaty.

**Catholic and Huguenot Opposition.**

The Duke d'Epernon arrogantly refused to recognize Henry IV. even on these terms, and withdrew his force of seven thousand men to the province of Saintonge. The Huguenots of the provinces of Poitou and Gascony, under the leadership of La Tremouille, Duke of Thouars, likewise withdrew from the army of Henry IV., because they considered the king's promise to the Catholics a betrayal of their cause.

**Eight Rival Claimants.**

Eight claimants appeared for the crown of France, the most powerful of whom was King Philip II. of Spain, whose second wife was the daughter of Henry II., and therefore the sister of Francis II., Charles IX. and Henry III. Henry IV. was poorer than any of his rivals, and did not have either money or troops enough to meet them on equal terms. His cause appeared hopeless. He was a heretic, had been the favorite leader of the French Protestants, and had been the ally of the king who had caused the assassination of Duke Henry of Guise.

**The Duke of Mayenne and the Cardinal de Bourbon.**

The Duke of Mayenne was a weaker and less daring man than his brother, Henry of Guise, and did not venture to lay claim to the French crown as yet, but proclaimed the Cardinal de Bourbon, who was a prisoner at Tours, King of France with the title of Charles X., and assumed for himself the title of "Lieutenant-General of the State and Crown of France."

**Henry IV. and D'Aubigne.**

King Henry IV. was seriously discouraged by the obstacles in his way, and was prevented from retiring into the South of France only by the persuasions of his faithful friend, D'Aubigné, the famous historian of the Reformation. By thus remaining in the North of France, Henry IV. saved his French crown.

**Henry IV. in Normandy.**

As Henry IV. found his army very much weakened, he raised the siege of Paris, August 8, 1589, and marched into the duchy of Normandy. The governor of Dieppe at once submitted to him and placed that town in the king's possession, thus giving him an important sea-port, whence

he might have communication with Queen Elizabeth of England, who had promised him assistance.

Caen next espoused the cause of Henry IV.; and in September, 1589, he defeated a superior force under the Duke of Mayenne in several engagements at Arques. He soon felt the good effect of these early successes. His brilliant management and his good fortune inspired him with confidence, and in the course of a few months his forces had increased to twenty thousand men.

Battle of Arques.

Results.

During the winter of 1589–'90 Henry IV. was recognized as King of France in the greater part of the provinces of Normandy, Brittany, Touraine, Poitou, Saintonge and Gascony; and he also had a strong following in the provinces of Dauphiny, Provence and Languedoc. All the Protestant sovereigns of Europe had recognized his title to the throne of France, and Pope Sixtus V. had expressed himself favorable to his claims.

General Recognition of Henry IV.

Henry IV. finally broke the power of the Catholic League by his brilliant victory over the Duke of Mayenne in the battle of Ivry, January 11, 1590. The army of the Duke of Mayenne was twice as large as that of the king. When the battle began Henry IV. addressed his troops thus: "My friends, yonder is the enemy, here is your king; and God is on our side. If you lose your standards, rally round my white plume; you will always find it in the path of honor and victory."

Battle of Ivry.

"Now glory to the Lord of Hosts, from whom all glories are!
And glory to our sovereign liege, King Henry of Navarre.
Now let there be the merry sound of music and the dance,
Through thy corn-fields green and sunny vines, O pleasant land of France!
And thou, Rochelle, our own Rochelle, proud city of the waters,
Again let rapture light the eye of all thy mourning daughters.
As thou wert constant in our ills, be joyous in our joy,
For cold, and stiff, and still are they who would thy walls annoy;
Hurrah! hurrah! a single field hath turned the chance of war;
Hurrah! hurrah! for Ivry, and King Henry of Navarre!"

Henry IV. could have taken Paris had he been able to march on the city immediately after his glorious victory at Ivry, but his advance was delayed by the necessity of reducing several important posts on the way. He reached the vicinity of Paris in May, 1590, blockaded the city, and was in possession of all the suburbs by the end of July. He might have taken the city by storm, but he refused to sacrifice the lives of his subjects. Said he: "I am the true father of my people. I would rather never have Paris than possess it by the death and ruin of so many persons."

Siege of Paris by Henry IV.

When the fall of Paris appeared inevitable the beleaguered capital was relieved by a Spanish army of fourteen thousand infantry under

Relief of Paris by a Spanish Army.

Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma, the greatest general of the time, who advanced from the Netherlands, completely outgeneraled King Henry IV., reinforced the garrison of Paris and supplied it with provisions, and forced King Henry IV. to raise the siege.

Retreat of the Spanish Army.

Greatly mortified by his failure in the siege of Paris, Henry IV. retreated to Compiègne in September, 1591. In the spring of 1592 he sought to force Alexander Farnese of Parma to a decisive battle; but the Spanish commander skillfully evaded the French king, and retreated into the Netherlands without the loss of a man or a cannon.

Henry IV. Becomes a Roman Catholic.

All parties in France were by this time tired of this indecisive and exhausting civil and religious war. King Henry IV., who already had been twice a Catholic and twice a Protestant, and who probably had no very deep convictions in favor of either faith, now resolved to bring peace to his distracted kingdom by again changing his religious persuasions. He caused himself to be publicly "instructed" in the Roman Catholic faith; and on July 25, 1593, he abjured Protestantism and received the mass from the Archbishop of Bourges in the presence of a vast assemblage in the great Cathedral of St. Denis.

Catholic Submission to Henry IV.

Henry IV. never made any pretensions to a religious life, and his change of belief was a matter of little consequence to him. In a political sense it was a state necessity and an act of the profoundest statesmanship; as it struck the death-blow to the Catholic League, and removed the last obstacle to the reconciliation of the two great religious and political parties which had so long distracted France with civil and religious strife.

His Coronation and His Entry into Paris.

As Rheims was in the possession of the Catholic League, Henry IV. was crowned at Chartres, in February, 1594. He was generally acknowledged throughout France; and he entered Paris on March 22, 1594, by bribing Brissac, the commandant of the garrison. The king lightly remarked: "So fair a city is well worth a mass!" The submission of the capital was followed by that of the provinces, and Henry IV. became undisputed King of France.

His Forgiveness and His Popularity.

Henry IV. signalized his triumph by his liberal treatment of his former Catholic foes. He was generous and warm-hearted by nature and was incapable of retaining any resentment; and his conduct toward his recent enemies showed that he had not only forgiven, but also forgotten, their offenses toward him. Naturally such a king became universally popular among his subjects, who served him with a devotion almost without a parallel in history. Henry IV. had proved himself a great soldier, and he was now to show himself a great statesman.

Expulsion of the Jesuits.

After being firmly established on the throne of France, Henry IV. resolved to bring his quarrel with Philip II. of Spain to a decisive issue, especially after an attempt upon his life by a Jesuit emissary

of Philip II. He caused the Parliament of Paris to issue a decree for the expulsion of the Jesuits from France within fifteen days; and he declared war against Philip II. of Spain, January 17, 1595. War with Philip II. of Spain.

In the latter part of 1595 Pope Clement VIII. formally acknowledged Henry IV. as King of France; and early in 1596 the Dukes of Mayenne and Epernon submitted to the king, thus putting an end to the Catholic League. End of the Catholic League.

The war with Philip II. of Spain obliged Henry IV. to put forth all his energies. In the North of France the Spaniards captured Calais, Ardres and Amiens; but Henry IV. recovered Amiens, September 25, 1597. By the Peace of Vervins, in May, 1598, Philip II. relinquished all his conquests in France except the citadel of Cambray. Spanish Success. Peace of Vervins.

By the *Edict of Nantes*, which he signed in April, 1598, Henry IV. guaranteed to the Huguenots complete religious freedom and toleration, and secured to them equal civil and political right with the Catholics. All civil and military offices were thrown open to the Huguenots, and special courts for their protection were instituted throughout the kingdom. They were also admitted to all colleges, schools and hospitals equally with the Catholics, and were permitted to publish religious books and found institutions of learning for their own exclusive patronage. They were granted the right to hold a general assembly once in three years, to deliberate upon matters pertaining to their welfare, and to petition the crown for a redress of grievances. The seventy-five towns which the Huguenots had obtained by the Peace of Bergerac, in 1577, were secured to them permanently by this famous edict. Among these towns were La Rochelle, Nismes, Montpellier and Grenoble. Edict of Nantes. Religious Toleration and Civil and Political Equality.

By the Edict of Nantes, Henry IV. reassured his Huguenot subjects, who had been alarmed by his compulsory desertion of their party in 1593. The Catholic clergy and the more zealous of the Catholic laity bitterly denounced this memorable edict; but nevertheless it was registered by the Parliament of Paris, February 25, 1599, thus ending the long period of civil and religious strife, which had drenched France with the blood of her own people for thirty-six years. Happy Result. End of the Civil and Religious Wars.

## SECTION XV.—THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR (A. D. 1618–1648).

The Emperor Ferdinand I. (1556–1564) and his son and successor, Maximilian II. (1564–1576), respected the rights of the Protestants of Germany and observed the Peace of Religion; but Maximilian's son and successor, the incompetent and careless Rudolf II. (1576–1612)—who had been educated at the court of Philip II. of Spain, and who Persecution of Protestants in Austria, Hungary and Bohemia.

was entirely under the influence of the Jesuits and given to the study of astrology—connived at religious persecution in Austria, Hungary and Bohemia. Complaints then arose of the infringement of the law and of the violation of the liberty of conscience as guaranteed by the religious treaties of Passau and Augsburg.

Misrule of Rudolf II.

The incompetent and negligent Rudolf II., whose Spanish education and devout faith had made him zealously devoted to the Roman Catholic Church, refused to make the concessions to the Protestants of the Empire that his mild and equitable predecessors had granted. Party spirit, strife and confusion followed throughout Germany as well as in the hereditary states of the Austrian House of Hapsburg.

The Elector of Cologne.

As we have seen, when the Archbishop-Elector Gebhard of Cologne became a Lutheran, that he might marry the beautiful Countess Agnes von Mansfeld, he was deprived of his dignity. The Lutheran states of the Empire considered this action an infringement of the "spiritual proviso."

Persecution of Lutherans in Austrian States.

Rudolf's cousin, the Archduke Ferdinand of Styria, Carinthia and Carniola, refused his Protestant subjects the religious liberties which they had hitherto enjoyed, and caused the Lutheran churches and schools to be torn down, the Bibles to be given to the flames, and all who refused to attend the mass to be mercilessly driven out of the country.

Donauworth under the Ban of the Empire.

The imperial city of Donauworth, which was mainly Protestant, was placed under the ban of the Empire for disturbing a Catholic procession, taken possession of by the impatient Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria, and deprived of its Protestant worship. The complaints of the Protestant Estates were unheeded by the weak and negligent Emperor.

Protestant Union.

In order to secure their religious privileges against the encroachments of the Catholic power, many of the Protestant princes and free imperial cities of Germany formed the *Protestant Union* in 1608, at the instigation of the Elector-Palatine and of Prince Christian of Anhalt, who were encouraged by King Henry IV. of France. As the members of this Protestant Union were mainly of the German Reformed Church, the Elector of Saxony, who was a Lutheran, refused to join it and held entirely aloof from it.

Contest for the Cleve Succession.

The death of Duke William of Jülich, Cleves and Berg, in 1609, without heirs, precipitated the contest between the two religious parties in Germany. The Emperor Rudolf II. conferred the reversion of the vacant duchies upon Christian II. of Saxony, but placed them under the immediate control of his cousin, Leopold of Styria, Bishop of Passau. But the Elector of Brandenburg and the Count-Palatine of Neuburg, each of whom had married a sister of the deceased Duke William, took

joint possession of the duchies, in which proceeding they were aided and encouraged by King Henry IV. of France and by the Dutch Republic, while Kings James I. of England and Christian IV. of Denmark also declared themselves allies of the Protestant Union.

**Leopold of Styria.**

The Emperor Rudolf II. sent his cousin, Leopold of Styria, Bishop of Passau, with a military force to expel the Elector of Brandenburg and the Count-Palatine of Neuburg from the duchies which they had seized. Thereupon the Protestant Union formed an open alliance with Henry IV. of France by the Treaty of Halle, in January, 1610, and defeated Leopold's army.

**Treaty of Halle.**

**Catholic League.**

To oppose the Protestant Union, the *Catholic League* was now formed by the Catholic princes of the Circles of Bavaria and Suabia, and by the Archbishop-Electors of Cologne, Mayence and Treves. Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria was the head of this league and the commander of its forces. The foreign allies of the Catholic League were Philip III. of Spain and Pope Paul V.

**Triumph of the Protestant Union.**

The assassination of King Henry IV. of France, in May, 1610, was a severe blow to the Protestant Union, as that confederacy had derived its chief strength from the genius of that great monarch, and it now became timid and hesitating. But the regency of France maintained the Treaty of Halle; and the lieutenant of the Archduke Leopold of Styria, after holding out several months in the hope of profiting by the assassination of Henry IV., surrendered the city of Jülich, September 4, 1610; thus leaving the disputed duchies in the possession of the Elector of Brandenburg and the Count-Palatine of Neuburg, the former holding court at Cleves, and the latter at Düsseldorf.

**Matthias Becomes Head of the House of Hapsburg.**

The Emperor Rudolf II. had alienated most of his subjects by his misguided policy. Bohemia was infected with discontent. Moravia was in open revolt. Hungary and Austria came under the government of his brother Matthias by a revolutionary act signed in April, 1606, by which the Emperor's three brothers, Matthias, Albert and Maximilian, and their cousins, Ferdinand and Leopold of Styria, declared Matthias to be the head of the Austrian House of Hapsburg.

**Matthias, King of Hungary.**

After two years of fruitless negotiations the brothers appealed to arms. Matthias marched a body of troops into Bohemia, and compelled Rudolf II. to sign a treaty near Prague acknowledging him as King of Hungary in full sovereignty and immediate possession. By the consent of the Bohemian Estates, Matthias was also entitled *King-Elect* of Bohemia.

**Religious Toleration in Bohemia and Austria.**

The Diets of both Hungary and Bohemia boldly asserted their religious rights; and Rudolf II. in Bohemia and Matthias in Austria were both obliged to sign charters of complete and universal toleration. The *Letter of Majesty*, which Rudolf II., as King of Bohemia,

granted to the Bohemian nobles, knights and towns in 1609, conceded perfect religious freedom with the right to erect Protestant churches and schools on their own lands and on the lands of the crown.

**Matthias, King of Bohemia.**

But the Bohemians distrusted Rudolf II., held him a prisoner in the Castle of Prague in 1611, and appealed to Matthias for assistance. Matthias instantly responded to this call by entering Bohemia with an army and compelling his brother to surrender the Bohemian crown also, so that the only crown which Rudolf II. still possessed was that of the Germano-Roman Empire. The miserable existence and imbecile reign of Rudolf II. were ended by his death, early in 1612.

**Death of Rudolf II.**

**Matthias, Emperor, A. D. 1612–1619.**

Matthias was then chosen Emperor by the Electors, and was crowned at Frankfort-on-the-Main with imposing ceremonies; but he soon showed himself as incapable of governing the German Empire as his brother Rudolf II. The Protestant Union was strengthened by the alliance of the Dutch Republic, while the Catholic League was paralyzed by dissensions in the imperial family and by the withdrawal of the three Archbishop-Electors.

**Weak Rule of Matthias.**

Instead of the Jesuits, who had advised Rudolph II., Cardinal Klesel controlled the court of the Emperor Matthias, who courted neither party, but was distrusted by both. Matthias's government was very feeble; and, though he was obliged to respect the rights of his Protestant subjects, he always sought to favor the efforts of the Jesuits to bring Germany back to the Roman Catholic Church, and soon convinced the Protestants that they could not expect much consideration from him.

**Ferdinand of Carinthia.**

The imperial House of Hapsburg had fallen into such decay that the brothers of Matthias resigned all claim to the succession; and as the Emperor Matthias was old and childless he appointed his cousin, the Archduke Ferdinand of Carinthia, his successor in Austria, Hungary and Bohemia. Thenceforth Ferdinand was the real ruler of Germany, Matthias being Emperor only in name.

**His Intent to Restore Catholicism.**

Ferdinand had already given evidence of the qualities of energy and ability. He desired to succeed Matthias on the imperial throne; and, as he was already known to be an inveterate foe of Protestantism, and had forced Styria, which was almost entirely Lutheran when he became its duke, to accept Roman Catholicism, the Protestants of Germany anticipated his accession to the imperial throne with dread. He was ambitious to recover for the Empire the grandeur and glory which it had possessed in mediæval times under Henry the Fowler, Otho the Great and Frederick Barbarossa; and he was wholly unscrupulous as to the means by which he sought to accomplish his ends. As he intended to make himself absolute master of Germany, so he

resolved that his own religion should be the religion of the German people.

Ferdinand, as King of Bohemia.

The Protestants of Bohemia were greatly alarmed for the security of their religious liberties when the Emperor Matthias caused his zealous cousin, Ferdinand of Carinthia, to be invested with the crown of Bohemia. At length, in accordance with an imperial decree, a Protestant church which had been erected in the small town of Clostergrab was destroyed, and another which had been built in the territory of the Abbot of Braunau was closed. The Protestant Estates of Bohemia, regarding this as an infraction of the Letter of Majesty, held a meeting at Prague, and presented a remonstrance to the Emperor, who, in his reply, sharply reproved those who had made the complaint, and confirmed the decree prohibiting the building of Protestant churches on ecclesiastical territory. Enraged at this, the Protestant deputies armed themselves, and, with Count Thurn at their head, proceeded to the council-house of Prague with the design of attacking the imperial council, whom they blamed for issuing the harsh decree. After a short dispute, the two Catholic councilors, Martinitz and Slawata, and the private secretary, Fabricius, were seized and thrown out of the castle window, more than fifty-six feet, by the enraged Protestant deputies. Notwithstanding the height of their fall, and the shots that were fired after them, both councilors escaped with their lives. The Bohemians established a council of thirty noblemen to govern them, and raised an army, at the head of which they placed Count Thurn, and entered into an alliance with the Protestant party in Austria, Hungary and Germany.

Closing of Protestant Churches in Bohemia.

Bohemian Revolt.

Thirty Years' War Begun.

The Emperor Matthias was anxious to settle the religious dispute in Bohemia peacefully; but Ferdinand II., as King of Bohemia, refused to listen to any offer of peace, as he now had an opportunity to extirpate Protestantism in his kingdom, as well as to punish his rebellious subjects. Thus, in 1618, began the great *Thirty Years' War*—the most terrible struggle that had ever afflicted Germany.

Bohemian Victories over Ferdinand's Armies.

The Elector-Palatine sent the heroic Ernest von Mansfeld to the aid of the revolted Bohemians; and that general laid the foundation of his future military fame by the capture of Pilsen, one of the three towns which alone remained to Ferdinand. The two armies which Ferdinand had sent against his rebellious Bohemian subjects were both defeated by Count Thurn, and the one commanded by the Flemish general Bucquoi was pursued into Austria and all its plunder was recovered. The Austrians refused to arm in the Emperor's service, or even to allow his reinforcements to pass through their territories to aid Ferdinand in the subjugation and chastisement of his revolted Bohemian subjects.

Death of Matthias.

In this emergency the Emperor Matthias died suddenly, May 20, 1619, and was succeeded in all his dominions by Ferdinand II., who

Bohemian Invasion of Austria.

thus became sovereign of Austria and Hungary, as well as of Bohemia. The victorious Bohemian army under Count Thurn quickly overran Moravia, marched into Austria and appeared before Vienna, where Ferdinand II. was holding his court.

Austrian Protestant Demands.

The oppressed Protestants of Austria welcomed Count Thurn as their ally and deliverer; and their ambassadors forced their way into the imperial palace, and demanded from Ferdinand II., with threats, religious toleration and equal civil and political rights with the Catholics. Ferdinand II. was in imminent peril, but he firmly refused every concession until the arrival of Dampierre's dragoons freed him from constraint. Had Count Thurn acted with promptness and decision

Siege of Vienna.

he might have taken Vienna and destroyed the supremacy of the imperial House of Hapsburg; but, having neglected his golden opportunity, he was obliged to raise the siege of Vienna and to retreat into

Count Thurn's Retreat.

Bohemia to protect Prague, which was threatened by the imperial army under Bucquoi, who in the meantime had vanquished Count Ernest von Mansfeld.

Emperor Ferdinand II., A. D. 1619–1637.

Ferdinand II. then proceeded to Frankfort-on-the-Main, where he was elected and crowned Emperor, June, 1619. On his way he visited Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria, from whom he obtained a promise that the Catholic League should support the imperial cause with arms, while King Philip III. of Spain also promised him assistance. The new Emperor's intention was to exterminate Protestantism in Bohemia, and then to strike at it in other parts of the Empire. His election was therefore regarded with the most intense alarm by the entire Protestant party of Germany.

Frederick V. of the Palatinate Chosen King of Bohemia.

About the time of the election of Ferdinand II. as Emperor the Bohemian nation cast off its allegiance to him; and the Estates of Bohemia and Moravia elected the young Elector-Palatine, Frederick V., the head of the Protestant Union and the son-in-law of King James I. of England, as King of Bohemia. The Bohemian Estates chose him partly because they believed that his personal qualities adapted him to the position, and partly because they supposed that his father-in-law, the King of England and Scotland, would aid him to maintain his crown.

His Acceptance.

Well-disposed friends vainly warned Frederick V. against accepting the dangerous gift. His own ambition, and the persuasions of his former tutor, Prince Christian of Anhalt; of the Calvinistic court preacher Scultetus, and of his haughty wife Elizabeth, who declared that she would rather starve at the table of a king than feast at that of an Elector—all these influences combined induced him to dis-

WRITERS OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

1. Tasso, 1544-1595
2. Cervantes, 1547-1616
3. Sidney, 1554-1586
4. Shakespeare, 1564-1616
5 Spencer, 1553-1599
6. Ariosto, 1474-1533
7. Rabelais, 1483-1553

regard the admonitions of his wisest friends, and he was accordingly crowned King of Bohemia at Prague, November 4, 1619.

Preoccupation of His Allies.

Frederick's few friends were absorbed in their own affairs. His father-in-law, the King of England and Scotland, was weak and vacillating, and disinclined to war. Prince Maurice of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, though the most inveterate foe of the House of Hapsburg, was occupied entirely with his home affairs. Bethlem Gabor, Voiwode of Transylvania, though at first the most active of the Protestant allies, soon concluded a separate truce with the Emperor Ferdinand II. A Bohemian and Transylvanian army of eighty thousand men again besieged Vienna in December, 1619, but was obliged to raise the siege and to retreat, after losing two thousand men from actual starvation.

Siege of Vienna.

Incompetency and Misconduct of Frederick V.

Frederick V., weak and incompetent, was utterly unfitted for so momentous a crisis; and by his thorough lack of energy and dignity proved himself his own worst enemy. He squandered his time in idle pomp and luxury, and offended the Lutherans and Hussites of Bohemia by his zeal for Calvinism and by allowing his favorite court chaplain to insult them in the rudest manner. He also alienated the Bohemian army by dismissing its able and tried leaders, Count Thurn and Count Ernest von Mansfeld, and by appointing his own favorites, Prince Christian of Anhalt and Count Hohenlohe, in their stead. Such was his lack of wisdom and prudence, when his desperate situation from the beginning required him to put forth every energy to meet the determined effort which it was certain that the Emperor Ferdinand II. would make to drive him out of Bohemia.

Philip III. of Spain and the Catholic League.

While the Protestant princes in and out of Germany thus held aloof from the cause of Frederick, King Philip III. of Spain, the Jesuits and the Catholic League of Germany were working actively in the interest of the Emperor Ferdinand II. By the mediation of France, a treaty of peace was concluded at Ulm between the Protestant Union and the Catholic League, giving all the advantage to the Catholic side in the war for Bohemia. Though peace was concluded between all the German states, both parties permitted the passage of troops across their territories into Bohemia; and, the "Archdukes" of the Netherlands being exempted from the peace, there was no obstacle to their Spanish forces invading the Palatinate.

Peace of Ulm.

Army of the Catholic League in Bohemia.

In August, 1620, the Emperor's powerful ally, Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria, led the army of the Catholic League into Bohemia, where he was joined by Count Bucquoi, their combined armies then numbering thirty-two thousand men, while Frederick's force did not consist of more than twenty thousand. Maximilian's next in command was Count Tilly, the Netherlander, a ferocious character, whose place

Its Great General, Tilly.

among the Catholic generals of Germany in the Thirty Years' War was second only to that of Albert von Wallenstein, the great general of the Emperor Ferdinand II.

The Emperor's Allies.

In the meantime the Spaniards under Spinola were devastating the Rhine lands. The Elector of Saxony occupied Lusatia for the Emperor, thus cutting off Frederick's hope of relief from that quarter; and King Sigismund III. of Poland sent eight thousand Cossacks as auxiliaries for the imperial army.

Battle of Weissenberg.

Frederick even yet might have saved his Bohemian kingdom had he acted with firmness and good management; but he alienated his best general, Count Ernest von Mansfeld, by his ill-treatment; and on November 7, 1620, Frederick's army, under Prince Christian of Anhalt, was attacked and defeated by the army of the Catholic League under Count Tilly in the battle of Weissenberg, near Prague. In consequence of this defeat, Frederick and his queen were obliged to flee from Bohemia, whose people they had offended and therefore could not trust; and, as they could not return to their rightful sovereignty, the Palatinate, which was then in the possession of the Spaniards, they took refuge in Silesia, and afterward in Holland, pursued by the imperial sentence of outlawry which deprived Frederick of his hereditary dominions, the Palatinate.

Frederick's Flight from Bohemia.

Cruel Punishment of the Bohemians.

Bohemia and Moravia soon submitted to the power of Austria, and the unfortunate Bohemians were cruelly punished for their rebellion. The Emperor Ferdinand II. cut the Letter of Majesty to pieces with his own hand, and revoked all acts of toleration, while the tombs of the Bohemian Reformers were destroyed and their bones burned. Twenty-seven of the Bohemian nobles were executed; the property of the others was confiscated and bestowed on the Jesuits and other Catholic orders; the Protestant clergymen were gradually banished from Bohemia; and finally it was decreed that no subject who would not conform to the Catholic creed would be tolerated, in consequence of which harsh measure thirty thousand Protestant families left their homes in Bohemia, and took up their abode in the Protestant states of Saxony, Hanover and Brandenburg.

Bohemian Exiles.

Secret Bohemian Protestants.

Multitudes of Bohemians who remained in their native land held fast to the Protestant faith in secret; and when, after the lapse of a century and a half, religious freedom was again proclaimed in Bohemia the government was surprised by the numbers who declared themselves Protestants.

Ruin of Bohemia.

The wanton cruelty of the Emperor Ferdinand II. entirely changed the character of Bohemia; and that country ceased to be the seat of learning and intelligence, while its commerce was destroyed by the murder and exile of its Protestant inhabitants.

Protestantism Crushed in Austria.

The Emperor Ferdinand II. next extirpated Protestantism in Upper and Lower Austria in the same barbarous manner as he exterminated it in Bohemia. His cruelty caused the Peasant Revolt of 1626, which was suppressed with extreme difficulty by the united forces of Austria and Bavaria.

The Protestant Leaders in the Rhine Region.

Count Ernest von Mansfeld, Prince Christian of Anhalt and the Margrave George Frederick of Baden-Durlach took the field in the cause of the outlawed Frederick of the Palatinate, and of the Protestant religion. Mansfeld plundered Alsace and desolated the Catholic bishoprics and monasteries on the Main and the Rhine, and, in conjunction with George Frederick of Baden-Durlach, gained the battle of Wiesloch, or Mingolsheim, in April, 1622, over the Bavarian general, Tilly, who had been sent into the Palatinate of the Rhine for the purpose of subduing the chief of the Protestant Union; but George Frederick was soon afterward defeated by Tilly in the battle of Wimpfen, May 6, 1622; and on the 20th of June of the same year Christian of Anhalt was also defeated by Tilly near Höchst. Mansfeld and Christian then marched into the Netherlands to procure assistance from England; while Tilly took Mannheim, Heidelberg and Frankenthal by storm, and committed the most frigthful ravages.

Battles of Wiesloch, Wimpfen and Hochst.

Plunder of the Heidelberg Library.

The Heidelberg library, then one of the most valuable in the world for its rare collection of manuscript, was partly used as a substitute for straw to stable the horses of Tilly's cavalry; but a part was sent by Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria to the Pope, and was known among the collections of the Vatican for two centuries as the *Palatine Library*.

Dissolution of the Protestant Union.

The Protestant Union was forced to disband its forces, and its organization was dissolved in 1622 amid universal contempt. It seemed to most observers that the Emperor Ferdinand II. had triumphed over all his foes and that he had established his power beyond dispute; but the Thirty Years' War had only really begun.

Maximilian I. of Bavaria and the Emperor Ferdinand II.

In 1623 the Imperial Diet at Ratisbon conferred the Palatinate and the title of Elector on Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria, through the influence of his ally, the Emperor Ferdinand II. This proceeding, and the evident intention of Ferdinand II. to attempt the suppression of Protestantism throughout Germany, blasted the hopes for a speedy termination of the destructive civil and religious war.

Saxon Alliance with Christian IV. of Denmark.

England, Holland and Denmark now lent their assistance to the Protestant cause in Germany; and the Protestant towns of Lower Saxony took up arms in defense of their religion, and formed an alliance with King Christian IV. of Denmark, whom they invested with the chief command of their armies. Those valiant Protestant leaders, Ernest von Mansfeld, Christian of Anhalt and George Frederick of Baden-Durlach, again appeared in the field.

**Albert of Wallenstein, the New Imperial General.**

Thus far the war against the German Protestants had been carried on almost entirely by the Catholic League; but, as the struggle had assumed greater proportions, the League demanded supplies of troops from the Emperor. Ferdinand himself, who was jealous of the power and influence of Maximilian of Bavaria, resolved to raise an army of his own. Albert von Wallenstein, a wealthy Bohemian nobleman, offered to support an army of fifty thousand men, at his own expense, for the Emperor, on condition of being allowed the unlimited command of them, and of indemnifying himself by the plunder of the conquered lands. After some hesitation, Ferdinand accepted the offer of the daring adventurer, made him governor of Friedland, elevated him to the dignity of an Elector of the German Empire, and afterward created him Duke of Friedland and a prince of the Empire.

**His Education and Military Greatness.**

Wallenstein was a Bohemian by birth, but a German by descent, and had been carefully educated at the University of Padua, in Northern Italy, then one of the most renowned seats of learning in Europe. There he imbibed a belief in astrology, which had great influence on his subsequent life. In consequence of his infamous bargain with the Emperor Ferdinand II., he was at the head of an army of as desperate troops as ever took the field. He soon proved himself a great general, and became one of the famous heroes of the Thirty Years' War, while also acquiring the reputation of being one of the most unscrupulous plunderers of history.

**North Germany Subdued by Tilly and Wallenstein.**

Northern Germany now became the chief theater of the war; and the army of the Catholic League under Tilly, and that of the Emperor under Wallenstein, soon broke the power of the Protestants in that quarter. The campaign of 1625 began with the advance of King Christian IV. of Denmark from the Elbe to the Weser; but that monarch was defeated by Tilly near Hanover, thus ending the campaign decidedly in favor of the imperialists.

**Mansfeld Defeated at Dessau by Wallenstein.**

In the spring of 1626 Wallenstein marched northward with his plundering horde, but fortunately for Germany a jealousy between Tilly and Wallenstein prevented them from acting in concert. Wallenstein pursued Mansfeld and defeated him at the bridge of Dessau; after which Mansfeld marched into Hungary, and died in Bosnia while attempting to make his way to the Netherlands. Christian of Anhalt died the same year. In the meantime Tilly took Münden, in Hanover, prevented King Christian IV. of Denmark from joining the Saxon dukes, and finally defeated him with great loss at the Castle of Lutter, near the Barenberg, August 27, 1626.

**Christian IV. of Denmark Defeated at Lutter by Tilly.**

**Wallenstein's Ravages.**

In the spring of 1627 Wallenstein again advanced northward, his plundering army being preceded and accompanied by bands of gypsies, who concealed themselves in the woods and pillaged farms and houses

Danish Retreat.

whenever they had the opportunity. King Christian IV. of Denmark was compelled to retreat into his own dominions. His ally, the Duke of Mecklenburg, was driven from his territories, which were immediately seized by Wallenstein.

Tilly and Wallenstein Masters of North Germany.

Schleswig, Holstein and the peninsula of Jutland were conquered and frightfully ravaged by the Catholic armies of Germany under Tilly and Wallenstein; and the King of Denmark was obliged to seek refuge in his islands. The Protestant German states of Pomerania and Brandenburg were forced to receive imperial garrisons, and the whole North of Germany lay prostrate before the power of the Emperor and the Catholic League. Encouraged by success, Wallenstein was anxious to win over the Hanseatic towns to the imperial side, so that Austria might be as powerful by sea as by land; and he endeavored to effect this result partly by force and partly by bribery.

The Hanseatic Towns.

Christian IV. of Denmark and Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden.

In his desperation and despair, King Christian IV. of Denmark looked to King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden for aid; but the Swedish monarch was still engaged in his long war with King Sigismund III. of Poland, and could therefore render no other assistance to the Danish king than to prevent the Polish sovereign from sending an army to aid the Emperor Ferdinand II.

Wallenstein's Proposal to Gustavus Adolphus.

Wallenstein had great respect for the military talents of the Swedish king, and sought to draw him into a treaty for the partition of the Danish dominions, by which Sweden would receive Norway and the province of Schonen, while Denmark and the control of the Baltic would pass to the Emperor Ferdinand II. or to Wallenstein himself. But Gustavus Adolphus rejected Wallenstein's overtures, and sent aid to the Danish monarch as soon as he was able to do so.

Wallenstein's Unsuccessful Siege of Stralsund.

The heroic inhabitants of the city of Stralsund, in Pomerania, refused to receive an imperial garrison. Wallenstein marched against the city, and swore that he would take it if it were bound to heaven with chains; but all his assaults were gallantly repulsed by the inhabitants; and after a siege of ten weeks, during which he lost twelve thousand men, Wallenstein was obliged to relinquish the siege and to retire. At the same time Tilly was weakened by the withdrawal of some of his troops to Italy; and he was successively driven from Jutland, Holstein and Schleswig by King Christian IV. of Denmark.

Peace of Lubeck.

The recent reverses of Tilly and Wallenstein in the North induced the Emperor of Germany to conclude a treaty of peace with the King of Denmark. By the Peace of Lübeck, in May, 1629, Christian IV. recovered the territories which had been conquered from him; but he was required to abandon the cause of the German Protestants, and to take no part in German affairs except in his capacity of Duke of Holstein.

**The Question of Ecclesiastical Property.**

Since the religious Peace of Passau, in 1552, a vast amount of ecclesiastical property had come into the possession of the German Protestants. This property consisted of two archbishoprics, two bishoprics and other ecclesiastical lands. The question relating to these ecclesiastical possessions was one of the most difficult raised by the Reformation. Much of this land had been bestowed centuries before under conditions of tribute and obedience to the Roman Catholic Church; but Protestant princes of Germany, as well as the heirs and descendants of donors, claimed their right to control the disposition of benefices.

**Edict of Restitution.**

The Emperor Ferdinand II. and the Catholic party, encouraged by their recent triumph, now resolved upon the suppression of the Protestant religion and the full reëstablishment of Roman Catholicism throughout Germany; and, instigated by the Archbishop-Electors and by the Society of the Jesuits, the Emperor issued an *Edict of Restitution*, in March, 1629, which required the Protestants to restore all ecclesiastical property which had been taken from the Catholics since the Peace of Passau. Two of the most important bishoprics thus held —those of Halberstadt and Magdeburg—were bestowed upon the Emperor's brother, the Archduke Leopold of Styria, who already held a plurality of sees. In many of the Protestant cities of Germany the churches were closed and private worship was forbidden.

**Protestant Resistance.**

As the execution of the Edict of Restitution would wrest many bishoprics and almost all the foundations and abbeys in the North of Germany from those who then held them, it filled the entire Protestant portion of the Empire with terror and alarm, and prolonged the destructive civil and religious war which had already afflicted Germany for little more than a decade. Many of the Protestant princes and cities of Germany violently resisted the execution of the harsh edict, and the Emperor found himself obliged to employ military force to carry out his designs, but his army was no longer commanded by Wallenstein.

**Wallenstein Dismissed at the Demand of the Catholic League.**

Wallenstein's barbarous conduct in spreading ruin and desolation wherever he appeared aroused the indignation of both Catholics and Protestants; and the whole body of the German princes in the Imperial Diet at Ratisbon, with Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria at their head, demanded the removal of Wallenstein from the chief command of the imperial army. The Duke of Bavaria was enraged by Wallenstein's presumption and by his ascendency over the Emperor Ferdinand II., while the other princes of the Catholic League were also offended by his haughty assumption of sovereign state and dignity. Fearing to offend the princes of the Catholic League, the Emperor yielded to the unanimous voice of the princes and the people of Germany, re-

moved Wallenstein and appointed Tilly to the chief command of his army. Wallenstein retired to his duchy of Friedland, while he lived in the enjoyment of immense wealth, until he should again be called upon to assume the chief command of the imperial army.

King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden as a Deliverer.

The unfortunate Protestants of Germany were now compelled to yield before the superior power of Austria and Bavaria; but they soon found a deliverer in the valiant Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, whom the intriguing and unprincipled French Prime Minister, Cardinal Richelieu, the enemy of the House of Hapsburg, had induced to assist the German Protestants in their war against their Emperor.

His Negotiations with Cardinal Richelieu, of France.

France, under Cardinal Richelieu, held the balance in European affairs; and that great statesman and diplomat gladly saw the imperial power weakened by religious dissensions in Germany, though his position as a cardinal and as the counselor of a Catholic king prevented him from waging open war in the Protestant interest; but he negotiated a truce between Sweden and Poland which left Gustavus Adolphus free to prosecute his designs in Germany, and he offered that king the subsidies and close alliance of France.

Alliance of France and Sweden.

Gustavus Adolphus at first rejected the offers of Cardinal Richelieu; but a few months afterward a treaty was signed at Beerwald, in Neumark, binding France and Sweden to mutual aid and coöperation for five years. The most prudent of the Swedish Council admitted the necessity of the war. Wallenstein's late movements toward the supreme control of the Baltic menaced Swedish commerce; while the support which the Emperor Ferdinand II. had given to King Sigismund III. of Poland in his claim to the Swedish crown, and the contemptuous and even violent expulsion of the Swedish envoys from the Congress of Lübeck, were flagrant insults to the Swedish king.

Menaces to Sweden.

Gustavus Adolphus in Germany.

Convinced of the justice of his cause, and animated by his zeal for the Protestant faith and by his desire to avenge private injuries, Gustavus Adolphus "set his house in order like a dying man." Leaving the government of Sweden in charge of a Council of Regency, and commending his daughter and heiress, Christina, then only four years of age, to the care and fidelity of the Estates of Sweden, he sailed from his kingdom, which he never again beheld, and landed on the island of Rugen, on the coast of Pomerania, June 24, 1630, with an army of fifteen thousand highly-disciplined and sober, God-fearing men, who assembled around their chaplains twice a day, and were not permitted by their pious king to devastate any of the territory through which they marched.

His Religious, Military Discipline.

German Imperial Military Weakness.

Gustavus Adolphus landed in Germany at an auspicious moment, when Wallenstein had just been dismissed from the imperial service, and when nearly all his officers had relinquished their commands in

disgust. When Tilly superseded Wallenstein in the imperial command he found himself at the head of a weakened and discontented army.

**Contempt of the Emperor Ferdinand II. Changed to Alarm.**

The Emperor Ferdinand II. paid little attention to the Swedish invasion of his dominions; and the imperial party generally predicted that the "Snow-King," as they called Gustavus Adolphus, never would dare venture far from the Baltic shores. But the ridicule of the court at Vienna was soon changed to surprise and consternation when the Swedish king advanced steadily into the interior and captured the fortresses of Pomerania and Mecklenburg in quick succession, which gave him a strong foothold.

**Victorious March of Gustavus Adolphus.**

Vainly did the imperial generals lay waste the country through which the Swedes advanced, even burning towns and villages to prevent the Swedes from obtaining food and shelter therein. The Swedish army continued its advance; and its perfect order and discipline won the hearts of the inhabitants, who were surprised that the invading army respected their rights, so that they looked upon the Swedes as their rescuers and deliverers.

**Jealousy of the Protestant German Princes.**

Many of the Protestant princes of Germany, fearing the vengeance of their Emperor, and jealous of the foreign monarch who had espoused their cause, at first refused to coöperate with the King of Sweden, and at the Diet of Leipsic they resolved to observe neutrality. Gustavus Adolphus compelled the Duke of Pomerania to enter into an alliance with him; but the Electors of Saxony and Brandenburg refused permission to the Swedes to march through their territories, and Gustavus Adolphus was delayed so long by negotiations on this subject that he was obliged to leave the Protestant city of Magdeburg to its fate.

**Jealousy of the Electors of Saxony and Brandenburg.**

The Elector of Saxony claimed the leadership of the German Protestants by hereditary right—a post which he lacked the ability to maintain. The Elector of Brandenburg, though the Swedish king's brother-in-law, was actuated more by jealousy than by any enlightened regard for the interests of his subjects.

**Siege, Reduction and Destruction of Magdeburg by Tilly.**

Magdeburg, the ancient seat of an archbishopric, had become one of the first and firmest strongholds of the Reformation under princes of the Brandenburg-Hohenzollern dynasty. It had resisted the Edict of Restitution and the investiture of Leopold of Styria, the Emperor's brother, as its bishop; and in 1629 the imperial army bombarded its walls for seven months. Magdeburg fell into the possession of the imperial army under Tilly, May 16, 1631, after a siege of six weeks, during which many fierce assaults had been gallantly repulsed. The devoted city was dreadfully punished. The entire city, except the Cathedral and a few houses in its vicinity, was burned to the ground;

and thirty thousand of its inhabitants were brutally massacred by barbarous Croats and equally cruel Walloons.

Tilly's Ravages in Saxony.

Both armies were largely reinforced; and Tilly marched into Saxony at the head of one hundred and fifty thousand men, ravaging and plundering with his accustomed ferocity. When the Elector of Saxony was informed that two hundred of his villages were in flames he found himself under the necessity to conclude an alliance with King Gustavus Adolphus, joining him with eighteen thousand troops.

Saxon-Swedish Alliance.

Battle of Breitenfeld.

The King of Sweden marched to meet Tilly; and a sanguinary battle was fought at the village of Breitenfield, near Leipsic, September 7, 1631, in which the united forces of the Swedes and the Saxons gained a most brilliant victory. This imperial defeat disclosed the long-hidden decline of the Austrian power. The rout of Tilly's army was so complete that scarcely two thousand troops could be rallied for the retreat to Halle, while all his artillery fell into the possession of the victorious army of the Swedes.

Tilly Defeated.

Triumphant March of Gustavus Adolphus to the Rhine.

The battle of Breitenfeld placed Germany at the mercy of the victorious Gustavus Adolphus, and opened to him the road to Vienna, which he might have captured, and thus ended the war by a bold stroke directly at the heart of his imperial foe; but he had higher views of his own than those of conquest, and believed that he could better secure the religious freedom of Germany by entering the territories of the Catholic League, in every state of which a small minority were still struggling for liberty of conscience. Leaving the invasion of Austria and Bohemia to the Elector of Saxony, Gustavus Adolphus marched through Franconia to the Rhine, taking all the important towns and fortresses with surprising rapidity, many of them welcoming him as a deliverer and opening their gates at his approach. The Spanish garrison of Mayence surrendered to him December 13, 1631, and became the Swedish headquarters.

French Alarm and Suspicions.

Thus at Christmas, A. D. 1631, the "Snow-King" occupied a firm position on the Rhine, attended by his queen, his Chancellor and a brilliant court of princes and ambassadors. But his unexpected approach to the French frontier had alarmed the suspicions of King Louis XIII. of France, while Cardinal Richelieu began to fear the decline of his own influence in the German Empire. The Archbishop-Elector of Treves was induced to decline the Swedish king's protection and to admit a French garrison into the impregnable fortress of Ehrenbreitstein, thus ceding to France a coveted foothold on the Rhine, which was not soon relinquished. Gustavus Adolphus gave the French no real ground for their suspicions, as he started on his return march to Franconia as soon as he had driven the Spaniards out of the Palatinate.

French Garrison in Ehrenbreitstein.

March of Gustavus Adolphus to the Danube.

When he arrived at Nuremberg he was greeted with acclamations of joy as the protector of religious liberty in Germany. Thence he marched to the Danube, crossed that stream, captured the city of Donauworth, and pursued the imperial army under Tilly to the river Lech, which separated the Swedish king from Bavaria.

Battle of the Lech.

The Lech was a narrow stream, but deep, rapid, and then swollen by the melting of the winter snows. Tilly's army occupied a strongly-fortified camp on the Bavarian side. The Swedish council of war declared that his position was too strong to be attacked; but King Gustavus Adolphus had personally reconnoitered the entire region, and had his own plan of operations, which resulted in remarkable success. After placing his artillery at a bend of the river where the height of the bank gave him a great advantage over the imperial army, he ordered a terrific cannonade upon Tilly's camp. Under cover of the smoke and din of this assault upon the enemy's lines, he caused a bridge to be constructed, while the interference of the Bavarians was prevented by the dreadful precision with which the Swedish cannon swept the opposite bank of the river. Tilly was mortally wounded by a cannon-ball; and Duke Maximilian I. retired to Ingolstadt, abandoning the defense of his frontier.

Tilly Defeated and Wounded.

His Death and Character.

The wounded Tilly died a fortnight later at Ingolstadt, his mind being occupied with military affairs to the very moment of his death. The entire soul of this hero was filled with war. He was simple and moderate in his style of living, and despised wealth and possessions, as well as titles and dignities. He knew no more of sensual enjoyment than of high cultivation or nobility of mind.

Gustavus Adolphus Invades Bavaria.

After occupying Augsburg, and there restoring the Lutheran form of worship, Gustavus Adolphus marched into Bavaria, and entered Munich, its capital, which had been deserted by Duke Maximilian's court. The only punishment which the triumphant Swedish king inflicted upon the trembling Bavarians was a fine and the seizure of one hundred and forty concealed cannons.

Wallenstein Recalled.

The Emperor Ferdinand II. was now in a desperate situation, as he was threatened with the loss of all that he had gained during the first twelve years of the war. In his extremity the humiliated Emperor again had recourse to the services of Wallenstein, who had secretly aided the Saxons to conquer Bohemia for the purpose of forcing the ungrateful Emperor to recall him to the command of the imperial army. When the Emperor appealed to Wallenstein the latter feigned a haughty reluctance to resume a command of which he had been deprived unjustly, and only consented to accept the command upon conditions which were both insulting and dangerous to the Emperor. Wallenstein demanded that he should be invested with ab-

His Terms of Accepting Command.

solute power; that no prince of the Austrian House of Hapsburg should be with the army; that the Emperor should not make any military appointments, and not give any orders to the army, under any circumstances; and that Wallenstein should have the disposal of all confiscated estates.

**Wallenstein's Ambition and Designs.**

Wallenstein had fully resolved upon his future course. His motives were ambition and revenge, and he accepted the imperial commission only that he might betray his ungrateful sovereign, whose ruin he intended to make the means of establishing his own power. He intended to drive the Swedes from Germany, after which he meant to make himself master of the Empire, and finally to seize the imperial crown.

**His New Army and His Opportunity.**

The magic of Wallenstein's name caused large numbers of troops to rally to his standard, and he was soon at the head of an army of forty thousand men, with which he drove the Saxons out of Bohemia. The Emperor Ferdinand II. vainly implored Wallenstein for a few regiments to relieve Bavaria and thus save Austria from invasion by the victorious Swedes. Wallenstein could not forego the opportunity of revenge upon his inveterate enemy, Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria, who had been responsible for his previous dismissal from the command of the imperial army.

**Blockade of Nuremberg.**

Finally Wallenstein consented to a formal reconciliation with Duke Maximilian I. on condition of having the absolute command of the Bavarian forces, which he united with his own army; after which he marched against Gustavus Adolphus, who had strongly intrenched his army at Nuremberg. Wallenstein, at the head of sixty thousand imperialists, formed a fortified camp within a few miles of the Swedish lines. For two months the two armies were watching each other, during which both suffered dreadfully from hunger and pestilence. After failing to draw Wallenstein into battle on equal ground, Gustavus Adolphus stormed the imperial camp, but was repulsed with heavy loss.

**Wallenstein and Gustavus Adolphus in Saxony.**

Gustavus Adolphus soon retired into Bavaria, and Wallenstein gladly saw the Swedish army engaged in humbling the Bavarian duke, while the imperial general himself turned to pursue his designs against Saxony. About the same time a revolt of the Austrian peasants afforded the Swedish king an excellent opportunity to invade Austria and march upon Vienna, and thus make the Emperor tremble in his own capital; but, upon being informed that Wallenstein was pressing the Saxons very hard, he sacrificed his own interests to those of his ally, the Elector of Saxony, by a rapid march northward.

**Battle of Lutzen.**

After collecting reinforcements in Franconia, Gustavus Adolphus arrived at Lutzen on the evening of November 15, 1632, where Wallen-

stein already held a strong position, ready to await the Swedish king's attack. The next morning the entire Swedish army, kneeling, joined in their king's religious devotions, after which they broke forth in singing Luther's celebrated hymn: "*Eine feste Burg ist unser Gott.*" The two greatest generals then in Europe now for the first time encountered each other on equal terms, and every soldier felt that the fate of the German Empire hung upon the issue.

**Victory and Death of Gustavus Adolphus.**

The impetuous valor of the Swedes put three imperial brigades to flight, but Wallenstein's word and example were sufficient to rally them and to lead them anew to the contest. A colonel of Swedish cavalry having been wounded, King Gustavus Adolphus took command in person, and charged the imperialists in advance of his whole army, during which he was mortally wounded. His troops were then led by Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, and were inspired by a fury of revenge. After nine hours' stubborn fighting, during which Pappenheim, the leader of the imperial cavalry, was also mortally wounded, Wallenstein retired from the field, leaving his artillery in the possession of the Swedes, and fled in dismay from Saxony into Bohemia with his shattered army.

**Victory Dearly Bought.**

Such was the memorable battle of Lutzen, in which the Swedes gained a most glorious victory, but which was dearly purchased with the death of the heroic and valiant Gustavus Adolphus, "the Lion of the North." The Swedes sent the body of their illustrious king, which was frightfully disfigured by the hoofs of horses, to his native land for interment.

**General Grief.**

The death of Gustavus Adolphus was received with the most intense grief throughout Protestant Christendom. The great champion of Protestantism had been stricken down. Never was a king more beloved by his subjects. No unworthy act sullied the brightness of his fame. A German poet has celebrated him as the "first and only *just* conqueror that the world has produced."

**Congress of Heilbronn and Axel Oxenstiern.**

In March, 1633, a congress of the Protestant states of Germany, and the ambassadors of France, England, Holland and Sweden, was held at Heilbronn to decide upon what action to take in regard to the future. This congress conferred upon Count Axel Oxenstiern, who was administering the government of Sweden as regent during the minority of the infant Queen Christina, the same dignity and powers that the valiant Gustavus Adolphus had held as protector of the Protestant interests of Germany in opposition to the Emperor Ferdinand II. and the Catholic League.

As the unfortunate Elector-Palatine, Frederick V., had died since the battle of Lutzen, the Congress of Heilbronn provided for his children by securing to them under the guardianship of their uncle,

Louis Philip, the territories of the Palatinate which King Gustavus Adolphus had conquered from the imperialists. The bishoprics of Bamberg and Wurzburg were erected into the duchy of Franconia, and conferred, as a fief of the Swedish crown, upon Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar. During that year's campaign Bernhard captured the important city of Ratisbon, thus obtaining command of the Danube.

**Congress of Heilbronn and the Palatinate and Franconia.**

After the death of Gustavus Adolphus the Protestant forces in Germany were under the command of the Swedish general Horn and Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar. Wallenstein displayed scarcely any of his accustomed vigor during the campaign of 1633, and gave great dissatisfaction to the Emperor Ferdinand II., who had already begun to suspect the fidelity of his great general. It became more and more apparent with the progress of time that Wallenstein was seeking to make himself King of Bohemia; and his enemies, who constituted a powerful party at court and in the army, demanded his dismissal.

**Wallenstein's Treason to the Emperor Ferdinand II.**

Wallenstein was accused of a design to enter into an alliance with Sweden for the accomplishment of his designs upon the crown of Bohemia; and for this reason he liberated the captive Count Thurn, the hereditary enemy of the Austrian House of Hapsburg. The Emperor Ferdinand II., by the advice of the friends of Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria and the Jesuits, who despised Wallenstein because of his religious views, resolved upon the destruction of the great general.

**Their Growing Hostility.**

When Wallenstein was informed by spies concerning the decision of the imperial council he assembled his leading officers at Pilsen and induced them to sign a written promise to stand by him to the last drop of their blood. Thus relying upon the fidelity of his army, Wallenstein felt prepared for a rupture with the Emperor. As Ferdinand II. was afraid to proceed to open hostilities with his great general, he sought to accomplish his end by treachery, and kept up a friendly correspondence with Wallenstein to the last, even after orders had been secretly given releasing the officers and troops from their obedience to their general and requiring him to be brought to the Emperor dead or alive.

**Wallenstein's Rupture with the Emperor Ferdinand II.**

The Italian general Piccolomini, whom Wallenstein considered his best friend, acted under secret orders from the Emperor Ferdinand II. to incite the soldiery against the powerful general and to lay snares for his life. The Emperor then pronounced Wallenstein's deposition in Bohemia; whereupon the great general marched towards Eger with his most devoted troops, in order to be nearer a juncture with the Swedes.

**The Emperor's Decisive Action.**

Before Wallenstein could join the Swedes he was assassinated, February 25, 1634, in his own headquarters at Eger by a band of

**Assassination of Wallenstein.**

assassins, with the Irishman Butler at their head, sent for that purpose by the Emperor Ferdinand II. Wallenstein's faithful adherents and confederates—Illo, Terska and Kinsky—were also assassinated. The assassins were rewarded with honors, dignities and wealth, and received the confiscated estate of the murdered general.

**His Character.**

Thus died Albert von Wallenstein, the terror of the German people and the idol of the German soldiery. He possessed an audacious and enterprising spirit, a commanding character and a boundless pride and ambition. When his tall form, clothed in a scarlet mantle and with a red feather in his hat, was seen pacing through his camp his soldiers were seized with a strange awe.

**The Emperor's Ingratitude.**

However treasonable may have been Wallenstein's designs, the Emperor Ferdinand II. was under the most sacred obligations of gratitude to the great general for twice preserving his crown when all seemed lost. The Emperor publicly showed his gratitude of the general whom he had thus violently and illegally put to death by ordering three thousand masses to be sung for the repose of the illustrious victim's soul.

**Movements of the Swedes and the Spaniards.**

King Ferdinand III. of Bohemia—the son of the Emperor Ferdinand II.—received the chief command of the imperial army, which took Donauworth and menaced Nördlingen in the summer of 1634. The Swedish general Horn had been sent with a detachment to guard the passes of the Tyrolese Alps, but was compelled to rejoin Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar and to leave the way open for the advance of the Cardinal Infant Ferdinand of Spain with an army from Italy. This warlike prelate was regarded as the first prince of the Spanish Hapsburgs since Don John of Austria who had possessed any military talent.

**First Battle of Nordlingen.**

This Cardinal Infant Ferdinand of Spain joined King Ferdinand III. of Bohemia under the walls of Nördlingen, where a great battle was fought August 26 and 27, 1634, ending in the total defeat and rout of the Swedish and Saxon forces under General Horn and Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar. Horn and three other generals were taken prisoners, along with six thousand of their troops. Twelve thousand of the vanquished army lay dead upon the sanguinary field; while eighty cannon, three hundred standards and four thousand wagons became the spoils of the victorious imperialists and their Spanish allies.

**Alliance of France and Sweden.**

The fair prospect for a general peace was blasted by the intervention of France, whose renowned Prime Minister, Cardinal Richelieu, although a prince of the Catholic Church, was resolved to humble the proud House of Hapsburg. He had for a long time watched the struggle; and he now decided to intervene actively, for which purpose he negotiated a treaty with the Swedish Chancellor, Count Axel

Oxenstiern, by which he agreed to assist Sweden with French money and French troops, in return for Sweden's consenting to the annexation of Alsace to France. Lorraine had already been forcibly annexed to the same kingdom, and a "Parliament of Austrasia" was duly instituted at Metz. The conquered duke, Charles of Lorraine, abdicated in favor of his brother, the Cardinal Nicholas Francis; entered the German imperial service, and became a valiant and successful general.

**French Annexation of Alsace and Lorraine.**

During the same year (1634) France concluded a close alliance with Prince Frederick Henry of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, for a simultaneous invasion of the Spanish Netherlands by the French from the south and by the Dutch from the north. The Spanish Netherlands were invited to constitute themselves an independent state, ceding a considerable extent of territory on each side to each of the two neighboring nations by whose assistance the liberation of those provinces from Spanish rule was to be effected. If the Spanish Netherlands rejected this offer of deliverance they were to be conquered and then divided between France and Holland.

**Alliance of France and the Dutch Republic.**

The Spaniards had already wrested Philipsburg, on the Rhine, from the French; and in March, 1635, they also seized Treves, destroyed its French garrison, and carried the Archbishop-Elector a prisoner to Antwerp. As the Cardinal Infant Ferdinand refused to surrender this spiritual prince upon the demand of Cardinal Richelieu, a French herald at Brussels declared war against Spain. The Archbishop-Elector was already under the ban of the German Empire for having admitted a French garrison into the impregnable fortress of Ehrenbreitstein; and he was soon taken to Vienna, where he was detained in captivity for ten years.

**French and Spaniards on the Rhine.**

**Captivity of the Elector of Treves.**

The Elector John George of Saxony had long been wavering, and after the battle of Nördlingen he decided to make peace with the Emperor Ferdinand II. Nearly all the German states ultimately acceded to the Peace of Prague, in May, 1635, though they united in censuring the base ingratitude of the Elector of Saxony, in the defense of whose dominions the heroic King Gustavus Adolphus had lost his life on the bloody field of Lutzen, but who now engaged by a special article of the Treaty of Prague to aid in driving the Swedes from Germany.

**Peace of Prague.**

By the Treaty of Prague the Emperor Ferdinand II. made many concessions concerning church property and freedom of worship, except in Bohemia, which kingdom was now declared to be hereditary in the Austrian House of Hapsburg. The Swedes rejected the treaty, and their own propositions were disregarded by the imperial court. Thus the Alliance of Heilbronn was formally dissolved by the action

**Bohemia under the Hapsburgs.**

**The Swedes Deserted.**

of the German princes in renouncing the Swedish alliance by the Peace of Prague.

German and Spanish Invasion of the Netherlands and France.

Germany was thus pacified for the time, and the Italian general Piccolomini entered the Spanish Netherlands with twenty thousand imperial troops; while the imperial army of the Rhine drove the French from that river and also from the Neckar, the Moselle and the Saar. The French operations were no more successful in the Spanish Netherlands and the Duchy of Milan; and in 1636 the German imperial and Spanish armies invaded France on four sides, but accomplished very little. Bands of Croats and Hungarians ravaged the North of France and alarmed Paris, where loud complaints were now made against Cardinal Richelieu; but the great Prime Minister quickly raised an army which dislodged the imperial troops from Corbie and drove them from France.

French and Swedish Victories.

In Germany, Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar was performing brilliant military achievements in the service of France in the Rhineland; while the Swedes under Banner defeated the faithless Elector John George of Saxony at Dömitz and still more decisively at Wittstock in 1636.

Emperor Ferdinand III., A. D. 1637–1657.

The Emperor Ferdinand II. died at Vienna in February, 1637, and was succeeded on the imperial throne by his son Ferdinand III. The new Emperor was naturally more tolerant than his father, and was less influenced by the Jesuits and the Spaniards. He had also personally witnessed the misery and desolation which the long war had brought upon Germany, and was sincerely desirous of peace; but the war went on vigorously.

His Defensive Attitude.

Ferdinand II. had commenced the war to exterminate Protestantism and to make the imperial power absolute in Germany. Ferdinand III. continued the struggle to save what he could of the Empire from conquest by the Swedes and the French. As he failed in his efforts for peace, he prosecuted the war with vigor; and the Swedish general Banner was forced to raise the siege of Leipsic and to retreat into Pomerania by a series of romantic adventures and escapes.

Swedish Retreat.

Defensive Warfare.

After the great heroes of the Thirty Years' War—Tilly, Wallenstein and Gustavus Adolphus—had passed away, the great conflict had entirely lost its religious character, and it was now a defensive struggle on the part of the German Empire against French and Swedish conquest.

Swedish Ravages under Banner.

The struggle lasted eleven years after the accession of Ferdinand III. The admirable discipline which Gustavus Adolphus had maintained among the Swedes had passed away with him, and the Swedish troops became noted for their excesses and their cruelties. Their commander, Banner, who was himself an unmitigated profligate, de-

clared that it would be no wonder if the earth should open and swallow up his army for its crimes and cruelties.

German Ravages.

The German armies on both sides were without a commissariat, and usually without pay, subsisting at the expense of the miserable inhabitants of the districts which they visited. Each army systematically destroyed the produce of the soil for the purpose of starving its enemies. The recklessness with which the wretched inhabitants were plundered and their property destroyed brought starvation and all its horrors to thousands of innocent women and children.

Brilliant Career of Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar

During the last period of the Thirty Years' War—the period following the Peace of Prague—all the principal European states were more or less actively occupied. Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, in the service of France, captured several fortresses on the Upper Rhine, and won a great victory over the German imperial army at Rheinfeld, March 3, 1638. He also forced the strong fortress of Breisach to surrender, in December, 1638, after a siege of six months. He entertained the project of obtaining Alsace as an independent sovereignty. But Duke Bernhard died in the flower of life and in the zenith of his brilliant career, and all his conquests on the Upper Rhine were absorbed by France.

His Sudden Death.

French Victories in Italy and the Netherlands.

The Count Harcourt, the French commander in Italy, defeated the German imperial troops in Piedmont, overran that country, and captured Turin in September, 1640, after a spirited siege of over four months. In the Spanish Netherlands the French drove the Spaniards from Artois in 1640, after capturing Arras, its capital, and annexed that valuable province to France.

English and Dutch Aid to the Elector-Palatine.

The young Elector-Palatine was aided by his two nearest relatives, King Charles I. of England and Scotland, and the Prince of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic; but the Dutch army sent to his aid was defeated by the German imperial army under Hatzfeld; and his younger brother, Prince Rupert, afterward so unhappily famous in the Great Civil War in England, was taken prisoner and detained in captivity in Germany for some years.

Revolts against Spain.

In the meantime the Spaniards were occupied with formidable revolts in the provinces of Catalonia and Biscay; while Portugal also rebelled and reëstablished her independence under the Duke of Braganza, who became King John IV., A. D. 1640. The Spaniards were also unfortunate at sea. Their fleet was destroyed by the French in Guetaria in 1638; and in 1639 the most powerful Spanish naval armament that had been sent forth since the Invincible Armada had menaced England was also annihilated by the Dutch.

Spanish Naval Disasters.

In 1637 the Swedes more than retrieved their losses in Germany. In 1638 they defeated the German imperial army at Elsterburg, and

Swedish Victories in Saxony, Bohemia and Bavaria.

the Saxons at Chemnitz. They followed up their victories by capturing and burning Pirna, and ravaging Bohemia with fire and sword, reducing more than a thousand castles, hamlets and villages in that country to ashes. The campaigns of 1639 and 1640 were sharply contested, and the results were evenly balanced between the two parties. In January, 1641, the Swedish army under Banner, by a quick and masterly march through the Upper Palatinate, suddenly appeared before Ratisbon, where the Imperial Diet was in session. The Emperor narrowly escaped being taken prisoner, but the city was saved from capture by a thaw, which prevented the Swedes from crossing the Danube.

Swedish Victories under Torstenson.

Banner died in May, 1641, and was succeeded in the command of the Swedish army in Germany by General Torstenson, the most talented of the lieutenants of Gustavus Adolphus. He transferred the seat of war to the Austrian dominions, which thus far had escaped the general devastation and ruin. He captured Glogau, Schweidnitz and Olmutz, and even excited alarm in Vienna. He besieged Leipsic, and defeated

Siege and Capture of Leipsic.

the Archduke Leopold, who was advancing with an army to the relief of that city, on the very site of the great and decisive victory of Gustavus Adolphus over Tilly in 1631. Leipsic capitulated three weeks afterward, and only escaped pillage by the payment of an immense contribution.

Siege of Freiberg.

The Swedish army continued its operations throughout the rigorous winter which followed, and attacked Freiberg, which the German imperial army was obliged to defend; but no sooner had Torstenson raised the siege of that town than, by a quick and unexpected move-

Relief of Olmutz.

ment, he marched through Bohemia and relieved Olmutz, which was closely pressed by the imperialists. He then established a fortified camp near Olmutz, commanding the whole of Moravia; and his detachments again extended their ravages to the walls of Vienna.

French Victory on the Rhine.

On the Lower Rhine the French in the meantime had won a victory at Kempen, which opened to them the entire Electorate of Cologne and the duchy of Jülich, A. D. 1642. In that year King Louis XIII., as an ally of the revolted Catalans, besieged and took Perpignan, the

French Conquest of Roussillon.

capital of the province of Roussillon, which was conquered and annexed to France, thus extending the French frontier on the south to the Pyrenees.

Death of Richelieu and Louis XIII.

Cardinal Richelieu's death, in December, 1642, was followed by that of King Louis XIII., in May, 1643; and the latter's widow, Anne of Austria, became regent for his four-year-old son and successor, Louis XIV.; while Cardinal Mazarin, who became her Prime Minister,

Mazarin.

continued Richelieu's war policy for the humiliation of the House of Hapsburg.

Battle of Rocroi.

The Spanish forces from the Netherlands laid siege to the fortress of Rocroi; but were decisively defeated in the battle of Rocroi, May 19, 1643, by the French under the young Duke d'Enghien, afterward so famous as the "Great Condé." He followed up his victory by the siege and capture of Thionville, the key to Luxemburg and the strongest fortress in the line of the Moselle, excepting Metz.

French on the Rhine.

In 1644 the French under their able commanders, the Duke d'Enghien and Turenne, won the entire valley of the Rhine from Basle to Coblentz, though they were repulsed with great loss in an attack on Freiburg.

War between Sweden and Denmark.

In 1644 Sweden became involved in a war with Denmark, which was still under the rule of King Christian IV.—a war brought about by the intrigues of the Emperor Ferdinand III. and of the queen-dowager of Sweden, who had been excluded from the regency during the minority of her daughter, Queen Christina. Denmark's demand for a payment of toll by Swedish vessels sailing into the Baltic—an imposition from which they had been exempted by a special treaty—was made the pretext for hostilities between the two Scandinavian powers.

Swedish Victories in Denmark.

The Swedish army under Torstenson invaded Denmark and speedily overran the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein and the peninsula of Jutland. The Swedes also conquered the province of Schonen and the towns of Helsingborg and Landscrona. A German imperial force sent to the relief of the Danes was annihilated and dispersed by the Swedes, only two thousand of these imperial troops succeeding in effecting their retreat into Germany.

Swedish Invasion of Bohemia.

The Swedes under Torstenson then returned to Germany, invaded Bohemia and achieved one of the most brilliant and decisive victories of the war at Jankowitz in 1645. The young Queen Christina of Sweden, who had assumed the government of her kingdom on her eighteenth birthday, in 1644, desired peace and required her great Chancellor, Count Axel Oxenstiern, to enter into negotiations with King Christian IV. of Denmark; and in August, 1645, the Peace of Brömsebro ended the war between the two Scandinavian powers, Denmark relinquishing the seven southern provinces of Sweden and exempting Swedish vessels from all tolls in the Sound or in the Belts.

Peace of Bromsebro.

French Victories in Bavaria and Flanders.

In 1645 the French army under the Duke d'Enghien advanced toward the Danube, and gained a brilliant victory over the Bavarian general Von Mercy at Nördlingen, August 7, 1645, thus winning that town and Dinkelsbühl for the French. Turenne took many towns in Flanders, and also captured Treves, which was restored to its Archbishop-Elector, who for a long time had been in captivity among the Spaniards.

French, Dutch and Swedish Victories.

In the Spanish Netherlands the French under the Duke d'Enghien captured Courtrai, Mardyk and Dunkirk in 1646; and great conquests by the allied French and Dutch armies were prevented only by the insanity of the Prince of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic. In Germany during the same year the French under Turenne and the Swedes under Torstenson advanced to the very gates of Munich.

French Defeat in Italy by the Spaniards.

The French under the Duke of Guise aided the rebels under the fisherman Masaniello in Naples, who rose in arms in 1647 to cast off the Spanish yoke and to establish an independent republic. King Philip IV. of Spain was so occupied by his operations to reduce Catalonia and Portugal to submission that he recalled his fleet from Naples; but in 1648 another Spanish naval armament restored his authority in Naples, and the Duke of Guise was taken prisoner at Capua and conveyed to Spain, where he remained in capitivity four years.

French Invasion of Spain and Flanders.

The Duke d'Enghien became Prince of Condé by the death of his father in 1647; and during the same year he was sent to assist the rebels of Catalonia against the Spaniards, but failed in the siege of Lerida, and returned to France in disgust. He was then sent to command the French army in Flanders. He took the town of Ypres in May, 1648, drove the German imperialists from the province of Picardy, and gained one of his most brilliant victories over the imperial army under the Archduke Leopold of Austria at Lens, in the province of Artois, August 20, 1648.

French and Swedish Invasion of Bavaria.

In the meantime Torstenson, afflicted with the gout, resigned the command of the Swedish forces in Germany, and was succeeded by Wrangel. In 1648 the allied French and Swedish armies in Germany, under Turenne and Wrangel, severely defeated the imperial army under the Italian general Montecuculi near Augsburg and overran Bavaria, perpetrating all the usual barbarities, but were prevented from marching against Vienna by a sudden rise of the river Inn.

Swedish Invasion of Bohemia.

In the same year the Swedish generalissimo, Charles Gustavus, afterward King Charles X. of Sweden, invaded Bohemia, attacked Prague and waged an indecisive warfare with the German imperial army under General Königsmark until news arrived of the conclusion of the Peace of Westphalia, when hostilities ceased. Thus the Thirty Years' War ended at Prague, where it had begun.

Peace Congresses at Munster and Osnabruck.

The peace which the German people for years demanded in despair was finally concluded. The preliminaries had been agreed upon at Hamburg in 1641; and the neighboring towns of Münster and Osnabrück, in Westphalia, were selected for the meeting of plenipotentiaries from the belligerent nations. After more than a year had been wasted concerning minute points of etiquette, the two congresses—

one of Catholic powers at Münster, and the other of Protestant powers at Osnabrück—were formally opened in 1643.

General European Representation.

All the great European nations, except England, Poland and Russia, were represented in these two congresses; as were also the smaller states, such as the duchies of Savoy, Mantua, Tuscany and Catalonia, and the Electorates, principalities and bishoprics of Germany. England was absorbed in her Great Civil War, and it was well for English freedom that the sovereigns of Continental Europe were prevented from intervening in behalf of the "divine right of kings" in England.

Exhaustion of Germany and Spain.

All the European governments doubtless were sincerely desirous of peace. The resources of the Emperor Ferdinand III. were exhausted. A considerable portion of Germany was still in arms against him, and another portion had declared its neutrality in the struggle, while his hereditary states were impoverished by their extraordinary exertions. Spain had lost Portugal, Catalonia and numerous towns in the Netherlands, and was now obliged to make humiliating concessions to France. France and Sweden seemed resolved to enlarge their respective territories at the expense of the decaying and tottering Germano-Roman Empire.

Five Years of Negotiation.

The claims of the belligerent powers were so numerous and conflicting that the negotiations were protracted for more than five years, and at many points in the conferences peace seemed wholly unattainable. The plenipotentiaries felt their own importance increased by the continuance of the discussion, while the generals had an equal professional interest in the prolongation of the war. Disputes respecting the rights of precedence between the ambassadors of France and Spain, and the title of Excellency borne by the Venetian envoy and claimed by the representatives of the German Electors, consumed many months of precious time in the Congress of Münster; while the war between Sweden and Denmark in 1644 and 1645 caused a total suspension of the Congress of Osnabrück for the time.

Peace of Munster and Independence of the Dutch Republic.

But finally the rebellion of Masaniello in Naples obliged Spain to bring her negotiations with the Dutch Republic to a conclusion; and in January, 1648, the Eighty Years' War of Independence in the Netherlands was ended by the Peace of Münster, by which Spain formally acknowledged the Dutch Republic as an independent power among the nations of the earth. By this treaty the towns of Dutch Flanders were ceded to the new republic, as were also all the Dutch conquests in America, Africa and the East Indies. When this eighty years' struggle began Spain was by far the greatest power of Europe; but when the struggle ended she was thoroughly crippled and reduced in power and importance, partly in consequence of her own suicidal

policy, and partly as a result of the heroic and persistent efforts of her former subjects in the Northern Netherlands.

**Armistice.**

The war which France and Sweden waged against Spain and the German Empire continued ten months longer; but the triumphant course of the French and Swedish arms in Germany alarmed the Emperor Ferdinand III., so that he consented to an armistice while the conferences at Münster were pressed to a conclusion. Finally the Peace of Westphalia was signed at Münster, October 24, 1648, ending the famous Thirty Years' War by restoring peace between all the belligerent powers except between France and Spain.

**Peace of Westphalia.**

**Concessions to the German Protestants.**

By the Peace of Westphalia the Emperor Ferdinand III. granted religious freedom in Germany, proclaimed a general amnesty, and acknowledged the sovereign rights of the German princes in peace and war. The Protestants were to retain all the church property which they had held in 1624, and were to be allowed equality of representation with the Catholics in the Imperial Chamber. But these concessions were confined to Germany. In Bohemia and the hereditary Austrian dominions the Emperor refused to tolerate Protestantism.

**The Palatinates and the Dutch and Swiss Republics.**

The treaty assigned the Upper Palatinate to the Elector Maximilian I. of Bavaria; but the Palatinate of the Rhine was secured to Charles Louis, the son of the unfortunate Elector Frederick V., and he was invested with the title and office of an Elector, so that there were now eight Electors in the German Empire. The Dutch and Swiss Republics were recognized as independent states, the former by Spain and the latter by the German Empire.

**Acquisitions of Sweden and Brandenburg.**

By this famous treaty Sweden obtained Western Pomerania, the island of Rugen, the cities of Stettin and Wismar, and the bishoprics of Bremen and Verden, which were now secularized into a duchy and a principality. This acquisition of territory in Germany made the Swedish sovereign a prince of the Empire, with three votes in the German Imperial Diet. The Elector of Brandenburg received Eastern Pomerania, the archbishopric of Magdeburg and the bishoprics of Halberstadt, Minden and Kamin.

**France's Acquisitions.**

The treaty confirmed France in the possession of all the lands belonging to the three Lorraine bishoprics of Metz, Toul and Verdun, and also ceded to that kingdom all that portion of Alsace which had belonged to Austria, the Sundgau, Breisach and the prefecture of ten German imperial cities, along with the fortress of Pignerol, in Piedmont.

**New Era in European History.**

The Treaty of Westphalia began an important era in European history, as it was the first effort to reconstruct the European States-System by diplomacy when their relations had been seriously disturbed. It ended the period of religious and consequent civil revolution which

had convulsed Europe for more than a century. It was fatal to the Germano-Roman Empire, which thenceforth existed only in name, the bonds hitherto uniting the Empire being loosened.

Weakness of the Germano-Roman Empire.

Instead of the compact realm which the Emperor Ferdinand II. had sought to build up, Germany was split up into three hundred petty sovereignties, each with its distinct coinage, its standing army, its custom-houses and a court in which ceremony supplied its lack of grandeur. In short, each of these numerous sovereignties had all the distinctive machinery of a separate state, and all were bound together in a nominal confederacy, without any national feeling.

Change in the Character of the German Imperial Diet.

The Emperor was deprived of his international authority. All the really imperial functions—such as making war or peace, constructing fortifications, raising armies, levying contributions for the support of those armies, etc.—were taken from him and conferred upon the Imperial Diet, which now ceased to be an occasional assembly of the princes of the Empire in person, and became a permanent organization consisting of their envoys with those of the fifty-three free cities. The Diet was required to convene regularly at fixed times and at a stated place. With the nominal existence of the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation there was a system of clumsy formalities which tended mainly to obstruct and embarrass European diplomacy.

Mutual Dissatisfaction.

Amid the general joy which hailed the conclusion of peace, neither party in Germany was satisfied with the Treaty of Westphalia. The Protestants felt that they had not received the rights to which they were entitled, and the Catholics denounced the treaty because it conceded too much to the Protestants.

Denunciation of the Treaty by Pope Innocent X.

Pope Innocent X. denounced the Treaty of Westphalia as "null, invalid, iniquitous, and void of all power and effect." The remarkable change in human thought marked and declared by this treaty concerned His Holiness more nearly than any other European sovereign, except the Emperor. By conferring full civil rights upon persons who were enemies and aliens to the Roman Catholic Church, this celebrated treaty abrogated the entire theory by which the Empire and the Papacy had existed together for eight and a half centuries. But this theory had been slowly vanishing, so that the treaty only announced a change already accomplished. The Emperor Ferdinand III. forbade the publication of the papal bull in his dominions; and the Catholic powers, in their joy at the return of peace after the mighty struggle of a generation, utterly disregarded the thunders of the Vatican.

Germany's Loss and Exhaustion.

During the Thirty Years' War two-thirds of the German population had perished by the sword, famine, pestilence and other causes. The resources of Germany were exhausted, and her territory at the close

of the war appeared almost like a desert waste. Cities, towns and villages had been laid in ashes; agriculture, manufactures and commerce had been neglected; and much of the former prosperity of Germany had passed away, poverty being general. Peace therefore came none too soon for the unfortunate land, as no other portion of Europe has ever suffered so terribly.

End of the Hanseatic League.

One of the results of the Thirty Years' War was the dissolution of the famous Hanseatic League in 1630, in consequence of the inability of the Hanseatic towns to defray the expenses in which the league involved them.

## SECTION XVI.—SIXTEENTH CENTURY CIVILIZATION.

Result of the Reformation.

The great Reformation resulted in the establishment of Protestantism among the Germanic nations of Europe—England, Scotland, Holland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden and Northern Germany; while the Roman Catholic faith remained fixed among the Latin nations—Italy, Spain, Portugal and France. Southern Germany, Austria and Poland also remained Roman Catholic. Hungary became largely Protestant. Russia adhered to the Greek Church. The Slavonic and Greek races in the Turkish Mohammedan dominions also held fast to the Greek Church. But nowhere, as yet, were the principle of religious toleration or the separation of Church and State established.

Toleration Not Yet Attained.

Learning and Science.

The sixteenth century was remarkable for the mighty impulse which civilization received in all European countries. Schools were improved and universities multiplied. The works of antiquity were translated into the modern European languages. Germany and Italy were the chief seats of learning and civilization. The many universities in Germany established through the efforts of Philip Melanchthon, the great Reformer, cultivated and developed the study of the ancient classical literature. The great scholar, Erasmus, of Rotterdam, in Holland, was called to England, by Cardinal Wolsey, to teach Greek at Cambridge. The Reformation awakened a spirit of inquiry, and wonderful discoveries were made in the field of science, especially in astronomy; while bold navigators were bringing to the knowledge of Europe distant lands in America, Africa and Asia.

Material Progress.

The sixteenth century was a period of great material progress, and the wonderful commercial revival brought many changes—many new elements characteristic of modern civilization. By degrees communication and correspondence became more easy and rapid, by the construction of canals and military roads. Systems of commercial credit were established at Antwerp, Amsterdam, London and other European

cities. Great fairs for trading purposes were held at Brunswick and Leipsic, in Germany, and at other cities. Banks, insurance companies and post-offices were founded in great numbers.

Industrial Arts.

The increased commercial activity stimulated progress in the industrial arts. Very great progress was made in these in all civilized countries. The processes of spinning and weaving were at first very simple, crude and tedious. The instruments used in spinning were the spindle and distaff, and then the spinning-wheel; while weaving was dependent on the loom and shuttle, and embroidery was executed by hand.

Art of Weaving.

With these simple means weaving had reached a high degree of perfection before the sixteenth century, particularly in Flanders, France and Italy, and in the cities of Brussels, Antwerp, Bruges, Valenciennes and Arras, in the Spanish Netherlands, and the cities of Genoa and Florence, in Italy. Tapestry-weaving displayed the highest perfection of artistic excellence, and immense sums were paid for the rich products of this skill. The silk velvets of Genoa were particularly esteemed. Stocking-knitting was introduced in the first part of the sixteenth century, and a Saxon matron invented lace-knitting in the same century, while the stocking-loom was also invented about the same time. Cotton-fabrics were made in Italy and Spain in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

Classes of French Society.

In France the nobles, except those connected with the royal court, were poor and helpless; as their fields were uncultivated and unproductive, and they themselves had scarcely the means of subsistence, their pride of rank forbidding them to improve their condition by labor. The bourgeoisie, or middle classes, embracing the merchants, trades-people, artisans, etc., were in many cases affluent, in some instances rivaling the nobility in the richness and elegance of their houses, in their dresses and in their equipages. The general condition of the French peasantry during this period was one of wretchedness and squalor.

English Manufactures.

The skilled artisans driven from France and the Netherlands to England by religious persecution laid the foundation of the manufacturing prosperity of that country. Agriculture was carried on more skillfully in England, though vast tracts of land were still devoted to the pasturage of sheep. The condition of the English peasantry was considerably improved. Their wattled huts gradually gave place to comfortable houses.

Nicholas Copernicus and His Astronomical Theory.

Nicholas Copernicus (1473–1543)—a distinguished Polish astronomer, a native of Thorn, then in Poland—demonstrated the falsity of the theory of the great astronomer of the second century of the Christian era, Ptolemy, of Alexandria, in Egypt, that the earth

is the center of the solar system, around which the sun and the other planets revolve—a theory which had been accepted for fourteen centuries; but his great work, *De Orbium Celestium Revolutionibus*, "The Revolution of the Celestial Orbs"—in which he maintained that the sun is the center of the solar system, around which the planets revolve—was not published during his lifetime, through fear, and was only published after his death by a Roman cardinal, who dedicated the work to Pope Paul III., himself a mathematician.

**Tycho Brahe.**

Tycho Brahe (1546–1601)—a famous Danish astronomer—made astronomical observations from the observatory erected by King Frederick II. of Denmark at Uranienborg, on the island of Huen, for many years.

**English Literature of the Elizabethan Age.**

As we have seen, the Age of Queen Elizabeth was one of the most brilliant periods in English literature. Edmund Spenser (1553–1599)—poet-laureate under Queen Elizabeth—wrote the *Faerie Queen*, an allegorical poem, written in stanzas of nine lines each, called the Spenserian stanza. Though it is not now much read and lacks strong human interest, this poem exhibits exquisite sweetness of language, pure and tender feeling and fine imagination.

**Edmund Spenser.**

**William Shakespeare.**

The immortal English dramatist, William Shakespeare (1564–1616)—born and buried at Stratford-upon-Avon—composed thirty-seven dramas, in which he shows the various phases of human nature, and which place him among the first of poets. When a young man he went to London, where he became an actor, a manager of a theater and a playwright. The greatest of his dramas are *Macbeth, Hamlet, Othello, King Lear, Romeo and Juliet, Julius Cæsar, King John, Richard II., Henry IV., Richard III., The Tempest, The Merchant of Venice, The Midsummer Night's Dream* and *The Merry Wives of Windsor.* The last two are the best known of his comedies; and in the latter the fat Falstaff, the companion of Henry V. and the type of a comic character, plays the principal part. Shakespeare gave its full perfection to dramatic poetry, whether of tragedy or comedy. His dramas are founded upon historical events or upon the ordinary affairs of human life. Shakespeare has been called the "Myriad-minded." Some writers may equal him in a particular point, but none ever possessed his wonderful power of ascertaining and showing the workings of the human heart.

**Sir Philip Sidney.**

Sir Philip Sidney (1554–1586)—the distinguished courtier and soldier who was mortally wounded on the field of Zutphen while fighting for the liberties of the Netherlands—did not write much for publication, but had a fine poetic temperament, and produced two works that had a powerful influence on the intellectual spirit of the age. These were *Arcadia* and *Defense of Poesie;* the former being a heroic romance

now read but little, and the latter being one of the earliest specimens of English criticism.

Sir Walter Raleigh.

Sir Walter Raleigh (1552–1618)—the renowned courtier, soldier and adventurer—was also a poet of some ability and a great friend of Spenser. Though a great favorite of Queen Elizabeth, he incurred the displeasure of her successor, in whose reign he was imprisoned for twelve years, during which he wrote his *History of the World.* He was beheaded in 1618, through the instrumentality of King James I., as we shall presently see.

French Literature.

Rabelais.

France produced two renowned writers during the sixteenth century. François Rabelais (1483–1553) was a priest and a famous satirist, who wrote the book called *The Life of Gargantua and Pantagruel,* which vividly illustrates the first half of the sixteenth century, but is immoral.

Montaigne.

Michel de Montaigne (1533–1592)—a noted skeptic—was a judge and Mayor of Bordeaux, but after the Massacre of St. Bartholomew he retired to the solitude of his own chateau, where he wrote the observations on life and manners which were afterward published as his *Essays.* His motto was *Que sais-je?* "What do I know?" His *Essays* were early translated into English, and have been widely read ever since.

Other French Authors.

France also produced the poets Clement Marot (1495–1544), Pierre Ronsard (1524–1585) and François Malherbe (1555–1628), and August de Thou (1553–1617), author of a history of his times.

Cervantes, the Spanish Novelist.

The sixteenth century was also the golden age of literature in Spain and Portugal. Cervantes (1547–1616)—the celebrated Spanish novelist—wrote many plays and tales; but his immortal work is his comical and satirical romance, *Don Quixote,* one of the finest pieces of humor ever written, and which so artfully represents a man who utterly mistakes the misty creations of a world of dreams for realities, and who fights for an object that exists only in his own imagination, that the term *quixotic* has become proverbial. Cervantes led an adventurous life, and was once captured by Algerine pirates and sold into slavery.

Camoens, the Portuguese Poet.

Camoens (1524–1579)—the only great Portuguese poet—described the chief actors and events of Portuguese history in his great epic poem, the *Lusiad,* in which he ennobled the epoch of the Portuguese discovery of India. During a passage home from the East Indies he lost his property by a shipwreck, saving only his great poem, which he held fast with his teeth as he swam. In Portugal he gradually fell into such abject poverty that he had bread collected by a Hindoo servant to escape death by starvation.

Italian Literature.

In Italy the flourishing period of literature and art begun in the fifteenth century continued throughout the whole of the sixteenth. Machiavelli (1469–1527)—a most politic statesman, a most acute thinker and a most pleasing historian, who flourished at Florence under the Medici—wrote *Discourses on Titus Livius*, *The Prince* and the *History of Florence*. These works still excite universal admiration. In the well-known book, *The Prince*, Machiavelli presents the spectacle of a ruler who, regardless of virtue, morality or religion, knows how to establish his own absolute power and make his own will the law. In this book freedom and national prosperity are as little regarded as truth and justice, only intellect being held in any estimation. Thus a faithless system of policy is called *Machiavellian*.

Machiavelli.

Italian Poets, Ariosto and Tasso.

In Ferrara the ducal court of the younger branch of the House of Este was ornamented by two of the greatest of Italian poets during the sixteenth century. Ariosto (1474–1533) wrote *Orlando Furioso*, a fascinating and sportive heroic poem. Tasso (1544–1595) wrote *Jerusalem Delivered*, an epic poem on the First Crusade, clothed in beautiful language.

Meistersingers in Germany.

In Germany the *Meistersong*, a kind of burgher poetry, was flourishing in the towns. Hans Sachs (1494–1576), the cobbler-poet of Nuremberg, was the most distinguished of the Meistersingers, and wrote six thousand pieces. Sebastian Brandt of Strassburg (1458–1521), a satirical poet, was the author of the *Ship of Fools*. Johann Fischart of Mayence, who died in 1591, was also a great satirical poet.

Fine Arts.

Italy and Germany were the seats of the fine arts during the sixteenth century, and all the great European artists of that period were natives of those two countries. These will now be briefly mentioned.

Italian Artists.

Leonardo da Vinci (1452–1519)—a great Italian painter, sculptor and architect—flourished at Milan, his great painting being *The Last Supper*.

Michael Angelo (1474–1564)—the greatest Italian painter, sculptor and architect—flourished at Florence under the Medici, and superintended the building of St. Peter's Cathedral at Rome.

Raphael (1483–1520)—an illustrious painter who flourished at Rome under Pope Leo X.—painted *Madonnas* and sacred pictures, and decorated the walls of the Vatican.

Correggio (1494–1534) was also a distinguished Italian painter, noted for softness and tenderness; and his most famous painting was his *Penitent Magdalen*, eighteen inches square, for which a sum equal to thirty thousand dollars was paid.

Titian (1477–1576) was an eminent Venetian portrait and landscape painter, whose chief works are at Venice and Madrid.

Paul Veronese (1530-1588) was also a celebrated Italian painter of the sixteenth century, rich in imagination.

German Artists.

Albert Durer (1471-1528)—"the Father of German painting"—was a great painter, engraver and sculptor, whose best paintings are *Christian Martyrs in Persia* and *Adoration of the Holy Trinity.*

Lucas Kranach (1472-1553) was likewise a great German painter and engraver.

Hans Holbein (1498-1543)—a great German portrait painter—spent most of his life in England under the patronage of King Henry VIII.

French Architects.

France produced Pierre Lescot (1510-1571), architect of the Louvre; Philibert Delorme (1518-1577), architect of the Tuileries, and Bernard de Palissy (1510-1590), first enameler of pottery.

England and Her Literature.

It may be interesting here to glance at the particular relation of the English people and their literature to the great movement of the Renaissance, which culminated in the sixteenth century. The insular position of England, combined with the nature of the English people, has allowed that nation to feel the vibration of European movements later and with less of shock than any of the Continental nations. Revolutions have passed from the tumultuous stages of their origin into some settled and recognizable state before the English have been called upon to cope with them. It was thus that England took the influences of the Renaissance and Reformation simultaneously, and almost at the same time found herself engaged in that struggle with the Counter-Reformation which, crowned by the defeat of the Spanish Armada, stimulated the sense of nationality and developed the naval forces of the race. Both Renaissance and Reformation had been anticipated by at least a century in England. Chaucer's poetry, which owed so much to Italian examples, gave an early foretaste of the former. Wycliffe's teaching was a vital moment in the latter. But the French wars, the Wars of the Roses, and the persecution of the Lollards deferred the coming of the new age; and the year 1536, when Henry VIII. passed the Act of Supremacy through Parliament, may be fixed as the date when England entered definitely upon a career of intellectual development abreast with the foremost nations of the Continent.

Character of the English Renaissance.

The circumstances here stated explain the specific character of the English Renaissance. The Reformation had been adopted by consent of the king, lords, and commons; and this change in the state religion cost the nation comparatively little disturbance. Classical learning had been adapted to the needs of modern thought. The hard work of collecting, printing, annotating, and translating Greek and Latin authors had been accomplished. The masterpieces of antiquity had been interpreted and made intelligible. The authorized version of the Bible had also

been recently given to the people. Almost at the same period of time England obtained in the vernacular an extensive library of ancient and modern authors. This was a privilege enjoyed in like measure by no other nation. It sufficiently accounts for the richness and variety of Elizabethan literature, and for the enthusiasm with which the English language was cultivated.

Eliza-bethan Litera-ture.

Speaking strictly, England borrowed little in the region of the arts from other nations, and developed still less that was original. With literature the case was very different. Wyatt and Surrey began by engrafting the forms and graces of Italian poetry upon the native stock. They introduced the sonnet and blank verse. Sidney followed with various experiments in classic forms, none of which took root on English soil. Marlowe gave new vigor to the couplet. The first period of the English Renaissance was one of imitation and assimilation. But the natural vigor of the English genius resisted influences alien to itself, and showed a robust capacity for digesting the varied diet offered to it. As there was nothing despotic in the temper of the ruling classes, nothing oppressive in English culture, the literature of that age evolved itself freely from the people.

Literature from the People.

It was under these conditions that Spenser gave his romantic epic to the world, a poem which derived its allegory from the Middle Ages, its decorative richness from the Italian Renaissance, its sweetness, purity, harmony, and imaginative splendor from the most poetic nation of the modern world. Under the same conditions the Elizabethan drama, which in its totality is the real exponent of the English Renaissance, came into existence. This drama very early freed itself from the pseudo-classic mannerism which imposed on taste in Italy and France. Depicting feudalism in the vivid colors of an age at war with feudal institutions, breathing into antique histories the breath of actual life, embracing the romance of Italy and Spain, the mysteries of German legend, the fictions of poetic fancy and the facts of daily life, humors of the moment and abstractions of philosophical speculation, in one harmonious combination instinct with intense vitality, this extraordinary birth of time, with Shakespeare for the supreme master, left a monument of the Renaissance unrivalled for pure creative power by any other product of that epoch. To complete the sketch, we must set Bacon, the expositor of modern scientific method, beside Spenser and Shakespeare, as the third representative of this period in England.

Shake-speare. Spenser and Bacon.

NORTH SEA
Helgoland
Frisian Islands
JUTLAND
ZEALAND
FUNEN
Borah
Veile
Sonderborg
Hadersleben
Flensborg
Aabenraa
Aarhus
Aalborg
COPENHAGEN
Elsinore
Helsingborg
Lund
Malmo
Landskrona
Halmstad
Varberg
Gothenburg
Uddevalla
Strömstad
Fredrikshald
Christiansand
Arendal
Skien
Porsgrund
Laurvig
Tonsberg
Christiania
Drammen
Hamar
Lillehammer
Gudbrandsdal
Romsdal
Trondhjem
Stavanger
Bergen
Sognefjord
Hardangerfjord
Norwich
Ipswich
Colchester
Dover
Calais
Boulogne
Gravelines
Dunkirk
Ostend
Bruges
Ghent
Antwerp
Flushing
Rotterdam
Helvoet
Texel
Vlie
Schiermonnikoog
Groningen
Delfzyl
Emden
Oldenburg
Bremen
Stade
Cuxhaven
Altona
Hamburg
Lubeck
Travemunde
Wismar
Rostock
Warnemunde
Stralsund
Greifswald
Swinemunde
Stettin
Kiel
Neustadt
Gluckstadt
Husum
Tondern
Apenrade
Sonderburg
Flensburg
Schleswig
Eckernforde
Rendsburg
Itzehoe
Heide
Tonning
Wilhelmshaven
Jever
Norden
Leer
Papenburg
Meppen
Wildeshausen
Hoya
Nienburg
Minden
Osnabruck
Munster
Lingen
Rheine
Enschede
Deventer
Zwolle
Kampen
Amersfoort
Utrecht
Arnhem
Nymegen
Zutphen
Doesburg
Harderwijk
Elburg
Hoorn
Alkmaar
Haarlem
Amsterdam
Leyden
Gouda
Dordrecht
Breda
Bergen op Zoom
Middelburg
Terneuzen
Ostend
Nieuport
Dunkirk
Calais
Boulogne
Gravelines
Ypres
Courtrai
Tournay
Lille
Roubaix
Tourcoing
Menin
Armentieres
Bethune
Arras
Douai
Valenciennes
Mons
Charleroi
Namur
Dinant
Liege
Verviers
Spa
Malmedy
Aix la Chapelle
Duren
Julich
Cologne
Bonn
Coblenz
Andernach
Neuwied
Deutz
Dusseldorf
Elberfeld
Barmen
Solingen
Remscheid
Siegen
Hilchenbach
Dillenburg
Herborn
Wetzlar
Giessen
Marburg
Hersfeld
Fulda
Gersfeld
Schmalkalden
Meiningen
Coburg
Homburg
Frankfort
Wiesbaden
Hanau
Mayence
Darmstadt
Worms
Mannheim
Heidelberg
Manheim
Carlsruhe
Rastadt
Offenburg
Kehl
Strasburg
Lunéville
Nancy
Metz
Thionville
Luxemburg
Sedan
Mezieres
Rocroy
Charleville
Vouziers
Rethel
Laon
Soissons
Compiegne
Noyon
Beauvais
Amiens
Peronne
St Quentin
Cambrai
Arras
Hesdin
Boulogne
Calais
Dover
Ramsgate
Margate
Sheerness
Chatham
Rochester
Gravesend
Tilbury
Woolwich
Greenwich
London
Windsor
Reading
Oxford
Banbury
Coventry
Warwick
Leamington
Birmingham
Worcester
Gloucester
Cheltenham
Tewkesbury
Evesham
Stratford
Bristol
Bath
Salisbury
Winchester
Southampton
Portsmouth
Chichester
Arundel
Brighton
Lewes
Hastings
Rye
Tenterden
Ashford
Canterbury
Dover
Deal
Sandwich
Margate
Ramsgate
Whitstable
Faversham
Maidstone
Tunbridge Wells
Guildford
Dorking
Reigate
Croydon
Kingston
Richmond
Hampton Court
Staines
Windsor
Slough
Henley
Wallingford
Abingdon
Oxford
Woodstock
Chipping Norton
Moreton
Tetbury
Cirencester
Malmesbury
Chippenham
Devizes
Marlborough
Newbury
Basingstoke
Andover
Romsey
Southampton
Lymington
Ringwood
Christchurch
Poole
Wareham
Dorchester
Weymouth
Bridport
Lyme Regis
Axminster
Honiton
Exeter
Crediton
Okehampton
Launceston
Tavistock
Plymouth
Dartmouth
Totnes
Newton Abbot
Teignmouth
Exmouth
Sidmouth
Seaton
Lyme Bay
Torbay
Torquay
Brixham
Start Point
Salcombe
Kingsbridge
Bideford
Barnstaple
Ilfracombe
Lynton
Minehead
Watchet
Dunster
Taunton
Wellington
Tiverton
Cullompton
Wellington
Bridgwater
Burnham
Weston-super-Mare
Clevedon
Portishead
Avonmouth
Severn Bridge
Chepstow
Monmouth
Ross
Hereford
Leominster
Ludlow
Bridgnorth
Wolverhampton
Dudley
Stourbridge
Kidderminster
Bewdley
Tenbury
Shrewsbury
Oswestry
Wrexham
Chester
Birkenhead
Liverpool
Southport
Preston
Blackpool
Lancaster
Morecambe
Barrow
Ulverston
Whitehaven
Workington
Cockermouth
Keswick
Penrith
Carlisle
Gretna
Dumfries
Annan
Moffat
Lockerbie
Langholm
Hawick
Jedburgh
Kelso
Coldstream
Berwick
Alnwick
Morpeth
Newcastle
Gateshead
Sunderland
Durham
Darlington
Stockton
Middlesbrough
Whitby
Scarborough
Filey
Bridlington
Hull
Beverley
Goole
Doncaster
Rotherham
Sheffield
Barnsley
Wakefield
Leeds
Bradford
Halifax
Huddersfield
Dewsbury
Ashton
Oldham
Rochdale
Bolton
Wigan
Warrington
Manchester
Stockport
Macclesfield
Congleton
Crewe
Nantwich
Whitchurch
Ellesmere
Wem
Shifnal
Wellington
Newport
Stafford
Lichfield
Tamworth
Atherstone
Nuneaton
Rugby
Daventry
Towcester
Brackley
Buckingham
Aylesbury
Tring
Hemel Hempstead
St Albans
Hatfield
Hertford
Ware
Bishop's Stortford
Saffron Walden
Newmarket
Bury St Edmunds
Thetford
Swaffham
Downham
King's Lynn
Wisbech
Peterborough
Stamford
Grantham
Sleaford
Boston
Spalding
Market Deeping
Oakham
Melton Mowbray
Loughborough
Derby
Ashbourne
Matlock
Chesterfield
Mansfield
Worksop
Retford
Gainsborough
Lincoln
Market Rasen
Louth
Grimsby
Cleethorpes
Barton
Brigg
Scunthorpe
Selby
York
Thirsk
Northallerton
Richmond
Darlington
Durham
Newcastle
Morpeth
Alnwick
Berwick
Coldstream
Kelso
Jedburgh
Hawick
Langholm
Lockerbie
Moffat
Annan
Dumfries
Gretna
Carlisle
Penrith
Keswick
Cockermouth
Workington
Whitehaven
Ulverston
Barrow
Morecambe
Lancaster
Preston
Blackpool
Southport
Liverpool
Birkenhead
Chester
Wrexham
Oswestry
Ellesmere
Whitchurch
Nantwich
Crewe
Congleton
Macclesfield
Stockport
Manchester
Warrington
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Bolton
Rochdale
Oldham
Ashton
Huddersfield
Dewsbury
Halifax
Bradford
Leeds
Wakefield
Barnsley
Rotherham
Sheffield
Doncaster
Goole
Beverley
Hull
Bridlington
Filey
Scarborough
Whitby
Middlesbrough
Stockton
Darlington
Durham
Sunderland
Gateshead

HISTORICAL MAP
OF
GERMANY,
SWITZERLAND
AND
THE NETHERLANDS
DURING THE
REFORMATION
AND THE
THIRTY YEARS' WAR
A.D. 1517 - 1648
By J.S.Clare
SCALE OF MILES
0 5 10 20 30 40 50
Possessions of the House of Austria or Hapsburg ..... Red
Possessions of the House of Brandenburg or Hohenzollern ..... Green
from Greenwich
16
18
20
22
54
52
50
46
Memel
Tilsit
Konigsberg
Friedland
Eylau
Danzig
Elbing
Marienburg
Tanneberg
Konitz
Schneidemuhl
Bromberg
Thorn
Vistula
Plock
River
WARSAW
Lowicz
Gnesen
Posen
Schrimm
Bentschen
Frankfort
Oder
Fraustadt
Kalisch
Pitschen
Glogau
Breslau
Oppeln
Cracow
Tarnow
Lemburg
Bochnia
Wielicska
Neumarkt
Teschen
Troppau
Ratibor
Koniggratz
Pardubitz
Kolin
Czaslau
Leitmeritz
Dimutz
Tabor
Kremsier
Teplitz
Rosenburg
Kaschau
Eperies
Varanno
Tolcmka
Neusohl
Kremnitz
Schemnitz
Lossonez
Miskolcz
Munkacz
Eylau
Debrezin
Presburg
VIENNA
Baden
Neustadt
Comorn
Waltzen
Cram
Buda
Peath
Szolnok
Stuhlweissenburg
Kroisenbrunn
Grätz
Kromenau
Kanischa
Lake Balaton
Fiume
Carlstadt
Laybach
Agram
Sissek
Essek
Drave
River
Save
Nagy Kanisa
Segedin
Theresienstadt
Baja
Mohacz
Zenta
Temeswar
Grosswardein
Szegedin
Bazinsch
Semendria
Sclavonia
Croatia
Hungary
Transylvania
Wallachia
Moldavia
Turkey
Germany
Bohemia
Moravia
Silesia
Prussia
Poland
Lithuania
Livonia
Courland
Pomerania
Brandenburg
Saxony
Thuringia
Franconia
Swabia
Bavaria
Austria
Tyrol
Switzerland
Netherlands
Belgium
Alsace
Lorraine
Burgundy
Italy
Venice
Milan
Genoa
Tuscany
Rome
Naples
Sicily
Corsica
Sardinia
Bornholm
Basle
Rome

# CHAPTER XXXIV.

# REVOLUTIONS IN ENGLAND.

## SECTION I.—THE FIRST TWO STUARTS AND PARLIAMENT (A. D. 1603–1642).

Stuart Dynasty.

As we have seen, the Tudor dynasty, which had worn the crown of England for one hundred and eighteen years (A. D. 1485–1603), ended with the death of Queen Elizabeth, in 1603, when the Stuart family ascended the English throne in the person of King James VI. of Scotland, who now became JAMES I. of England. Thenceforth the crowns of England and Scotland were united, but each kingdom had its own Parliament until 1707, when a constitutional, or legislative union took place.

James I., A. D. 1603–1625.

Union of English and Scotch Crowns.

The union of England and Scotland under one sovereign put an end to the hostility that had existed between them for centuries. James I. warmly advocated the adoption of measures to strengthen this union. The two kingdoms were, however, still separate, each managing its internal affairs in its own way. The English Parliament refused to adopt the king's policy, ascribing it to his partiality for his Scottish subjects and his desire to benefit them, regardless of English interests.

Character of James I.

James I. was a vain, bigoted and pedantic prince. He was in the possession of much theological learning, and delighted to engage in controversies on religious subjects. He loved to make a display of his wisdom and knowledge in lengthy harangues. James was also ambitious of the reputation of being a great author, and he wrote many books. He was plain in person, awkward in manner and addicted to drunkenness. He was one of the most puerile and the most presumptuous of English sovereigns.

His Unpopularity.

His pedantic display of his learning caused Henry IV. of France to call him "the wisest fool in Christendom." His unpopularity was fully demonstrated by the fact that his peculiarities of person and character were publicly caricatured in the London theaters, to the indescribable enjoyment of the people. The public contempt for his

meanness was surpassed only by the public resentment at his usurpations.

**His Defects.** James I. lacked the shrewdness and decision essential in a sovereign. He was so extreme a lover of peace as to sacrifice the honor and dignity of his kingdom, for the sake of living on friendly terms with foreign governments. One of the faults of James was his lavishness of favors to unworthy persons.

**"Divine Right of Kings."** James I. was a firm believer in "the divine right of kings." He believed that his authority was derived directly from God and that his power was unlimited. As "the Lord's Anointed," he frankly declared in the Star Chamber: "As it is atheism and blasphemy to dispute what God can do, so it is high contempt in a subject to dispute what a king can do, or to say that the king can not do this or that."

**James I. and the Episcopal Church.** For this reason he hated the Presbyterian Church of Scotland, which made the king only a common member of the congregation; but he was zealously attached to the Episcopal Church of England, in which the monarch was considered the head and origin of all spiritual power; and the great object of James was the suppression of Puritanism in England and Presbyterianism in Scotland, and the full establishment of Episcopacy as the only form of religion throughout his dominions.

**Lady Arabella Stuart.** The quiet of King James' reign was soon disturbed by a conspiracy to place Lady Arabella Stuart, his first cousin, on the throne of England; but the design of the conspirators was easily frustrated. Sir Walter Raleigh, who was accused of complicity in the plot in favor of Lady Arabella, and tried and convicted on slight evidence, was held in imprisonment for twelve years, during which he wrote his *History of the World*.

**Raleigh's Imprisonment.**

**James I. and the Catholics and Puritans.** Before James I. had reached London he had been approached by Catholics and Puritans; the Catholics basing their hopes on his promise of toleration to obtain Catholic support, and the Puritans expecting much from his Puritan education; but both were doomed to disappointment. As an avowed Episcopalian, and as the Head of the State Church of England, he soon began to execute the laws against the Nonconformists more rigorously than Elizabeth had done.

**Catholic Capitation Tax.** No sooner was James I. seated on the English throne than he forgot his promises of toleration to the English Roman Catholics, and followed the example of Queen Elizabeth in making them pay an oppressive capitation tax, that he might enrich his favorites and defray the expenses of his court festivals. This aroused the indignation of the Catholics, some of whom, at the instigation of Robert Catesby, resolved upon a conspiracy to blow up the Parliament House with gunpowder, at a time when the king, the Lords and the Commons would be assembled there, and thus destroy the government of England.

**Gunpower Plot.**

CROMWELL'S VISIT TO MILTON

From the Painting by David Neal

Its Discovery.

The conspirators hired the cellar under the House of Lords ostensibly for business purposes. Lord Mounteagle, a Catholic, received an anonymous letter November 4, 1605, warning him to stay away from Parliament. He showed the letter to Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, and the Parliament House was at once examined. Thirty-six barrels of gunpowder were found concealed under a pile of wood and fagots; and Guy Fawkes, the keeper of the cellar, was detected in preparing slow matches for the explosion on the morrow. Guy Fawkes was seized and executed, and his fellow-conspirators were ferreted out and put to death. This conspiracy is known as the *Gunpowder Plot.*

Seizure of Guy Fawkes.

Oath Exacted from Catholics.

In consequence of this dangerous conspiracy, the English Roman Catholics were heavily fined, and compelled to take an oath of allegiance to the king, renouncing the Pope's right to excommunicate sovereigns or to absolve subjects from their allegiance, as well as the doctrine that excommunicated sovereigns might be deposed or murdered by their subjects or others. Some of the Catholics took the oath. Others refused to do so, at the Pope's bidding. The 5th of November, or *Pope's Day,* has ever since been observed in England as a holiday, one of the performances being the burning of Guy Fawkes in effigy.

Pope's Day.

James's Attitude toward the Puritans.

James I. was especially arbitrary in matters of religion. The great mass of the English nation had by this time become Puritan; and, while belonging to the Established Church, they disapproved of many ceremonies which had been retained in the Church service, and desired a return to the simple usages described in the New Testament, as well as a more stringent observance of the Sabbath and a more serious tone of manners. But the king rejected the petition of eight hundred clergymen to these ends; and insulted the Puritan divines whom he had invited to Hampton Court, by a frivolous display of his learning, and by brutal expressions of contempt for their grave remonstrances.

His Failure to Convince Them.

The hope that the convention of Episcopal and Puritan divines, which James I. had called in 1604 to discuss the religious question, would harmonize the conflicting religious sects was not realized. The king, who had been the most prominent speaker in behalf of the State Church, was angry at the obstinacy of the Puritans, who failed to be convinced by his arguments. He endeavored to convert them by a threat when the convention closed, saying: "I will make them conform, or I will harry them out of the land." The persecutions which followed obliged multitudes of English subjects to seek an asylum in foreign lands.

King James's Version of the Bible.

The only important result of the convention of Episcopal and Puritan divines, summoned by the king in 1604, was the issue of a new English translation of the Bible in 1611, known as *King James's Ver-*

*sion*, the one which is still used by most Protestants among English-speaking nations, and which was revised by a body of British and American divines in 1881. Fifty-four learned English divines were occupied three year in the preparation of King James's Bible.

**Puritan Colony of Plymouth in New England.**

The Separatists, or Independents, differed from the more moderate Puritans in withdrawing entirely from the Established Church. One congregation, under the Rev. John Robinson, expecting no indulgence at home, emigrated to Holland—that vigorous little republic which had just won its freedom from the iron hand of despotic Spain, and which now offered an asylum to the oppressed of all lands. But the Pilgrim Fathers, being English at heart, desired to live under English laws and to educate their children in the English language. They therefore returned to their native land and embarked in the *Mayflower* for the wilds of America. They finally landed at Plymouth Rock, December 21, 1620, and laid the foundations of a free state in New England. Puritan emigration flowed there for some years. The moral strength of these Puritan colonists entered largely into the character of New England.

**English Colony of Jamestown in Virginia.**

The Puritan colonists of New England differed entirely from the idle and dissolute adventurers and gold seekers who founded Jamestown in Virginia in 1607, and who, having come to the New World to repair their ruined fortunes, were saved from starvation only by the energy and good sense of Captain John Smith, who insisted that "nothing was to be expected but by labor." This settlement began to flourish only when "men fell to building houses and planting corn." These settlements were made in the respective territories of the Plymouth and London Companies, chartered by King James I. in 1606. A full account of these English colonies in North America will be given in a separate section.

**Plots and Flight of Irish Chiefs.**

The reign of James I. was an era of colonization, not only in America, but also in the North of Ireland, which had been desolated by Tyrone's Rebellion. In the first few years of the reign of James I. the Earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, the most powerful chieftains in the North of Ireland, were accused of plotting to overthrow English authority in that kingdom. They saved themselves by flight, and were attainted of treason and outlawed. In 1608 O'Dogherty, an Irish chief of great influence, rebelled, and his estates were declared forfeited. As a result of these unsuccessful plots and rebellions, most of the province of Ulster was confiscated to the English crown.

**Confiscations of Ulster Estates.**

**Scotch Presbyterians in Ulster.**

Thereupon King James I. disposed of the lands of that part of Ireland to English and Scotch settlers, who so improved it that it soon became the most flourishing portion of the Emerald Isle. The Scotch settlers of Ulster were Presbyterians; and their descendants,

sometimes called *Scotch-Irish*, are the most prosperous and contented of the population of Erin. Leinster was also colonized by English and Scotch settlers with the same success.

English and Scotch Settlers in Ireland.

But, notwithstanding the material improvement of Ireland, a deep injury was inflicted upon the country. The native Irish proprietors were driven from their homes and lands in numerous instances to make room for the English and Scotch settlers, thus implanting in the hearts of the Irish people a sense of injustice which Great Britain has not yet eradicated.

English East India Company.

The English East-India Company, which was chartered by Queen Elizabeth, December 31, 1600—the last day of the sixteenth century—had its charter renewed, and erected its first factory at Surat, on the western coast of Hindoostan, in 1612.

James I. and Parliament.

King James's idea of the "divine right of kings" was the keynote to the royal policy in Church and State. When Parliament assembled in 1604 the House of Commons was largely Puritan, and its temper concerning the principles of absolutism which the king endeavored to enforce is clearly seen in its action. The Commons petitioned for a redress of grievances in matters of religion. The king's decided rejection of this petition encountered as decided a protest on the part of the Commons in these words: "Let Your Majesty be pleased to receive public information from your Commons in Parliament, as well of the abuses in the Church as in the civil State. Your Majesty would be misinformed if any man should deliver that the Kings of England have any absolute power in themselves, either to alter religion or to make any laws concerning the same, otherwise than as in temporal causes, by consent of Parliament."

Petition and Protest of the Commons.

Controversy between King and Commons.

King James I. claimed absolute control over the liberties of the English people. In 1604 a controversy arose between him and the House of Commons concerning the claim by that body of the sole right to judge of the elections of its members. The king insisted upon the right to command the Commons to accept his decision, but the House maintained it privileges. A compromise suggested by the king obviated a more serious misunderstanding.

Another Petition and Protest of the Commons.

King James I. levied a tax on all exports and imports, and procured a judicial decision sustaining its legality. The House of Commons then petitioned for a redress of grievances in matters of state. The king's refusal to grant this petition called forth another protest from the Commons, and a prayer that a law be made to declare "that all impositions set upon your people, their goods or merchandise, save only by common consent in Parliament, are and shall be void." The king promptly dissolved Parliament, but his necessities obliged him to summon another.

**A New House of Commons and Its Dissolution.**

The questions which divided the king and Parliament became the issue before the English people in the election of a new House of Commons. The new Parliament was decidedly more antagonistic to the royal policy than its predecessor had been; as it refused to vote a grant of supplies except on condition that the king grant a redress of grievances, particularly that of illegal imposts. The angry king displayed his obstinacy and folly by again dissolving Parliament.

**James I. and Lord Chief Justice Coke.**

The English people resisted the king's illegal levy of customs, and public sentiment was sustained by the decisions of the courts. The indignant king sent for the judges and abused them into promising to submit to his will. But the Lord Chief Justice, Sir Edward Coke, a man of numerous faults, but who would not aid the king in trampling the laws of England under foot, declared that he would decide the cases which came before him as a just judge should. James I. at once dismissed Sir Edward Coke from the royal council; and, as the honest judge adhered to his determination, the king also removed him from the office of Lord Chief Justice in 1615. All classes of the English people regarded this act of the king with horror and resentment, as they considered it the announcement of his intention to tamper with the course of justice.

**The King's Absolute Rule and Extortion.**

The breach between the English people and their king was widened by seven years of absolute rule, seven years of extortion. The king continued the illegal imposts; revived the odious *benevolences;* practiced the equally odious system of *purveyance,* regardless of law; renewed the sale of monopolies, and the obsolete system of royal wardship giving to the king during the minority of the heir the incomes of the estates held under military tenure; and sold patents of nobility so freely that at the time of his death one-half of the Peers of England were those which he had created.

**The Royal Right of Purveyance.**

The royal right of purveyance was an old prerogative of the English crown by which the king had the preference over all others in the purchase of supplies. He could take the supplies at an appraised value, even without the owner's consent. The royal officers frequently practiced great injustice, as the right of purveyance became a system of royal robbery under some of the English kings. An effort to regulate it was made in Magna Charta, and also by repeated Parliamentary enactments during succeeding reigns. Charles II. finally relinquished the right for a compensation.

**Revenue Wasted.**

The money which King James I. wrung from his subjects by his illegal measures was wasted on his corrupt courtiers, thus exciting the indignation and disgust of the English people.

**Royal Favorites.**

The king exhibited his weakness in the choice of his personal favorites, who were generally unworthy persons, and who were entrusted

with the highest and most responsible stations in the government. Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, during his lifetime managed to retain his influence over King James I.; but after that nobleman's death the king surrendered himself entirely to his favorites.

Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury.

The first of these was Robert Carr, a handsome but ignorant Scottish youth, whom the king created Earl of Somerset, and to whom he gave lessons daily in Latin and in "kingcraft." The royal favorite desired to marry the Countess of Essex; but was advised by his friend, Sir Thomas Overbury, not to do so. The countess was so irritated at this that she persuaded the Earl of Somerset to have Sir Thomas Overbury imprisoned in the Tower, where he was poisoned soon afterward. The Earl of Somerset and the Countess of Essex, who had contrived the murder, were then married; but the crime threw the earl into such a state of remorse and melancholy as to spoil his graceful gayety and make him so dull a companion that the king became weary of him. The guilt of the earl and his wife was discovered afterward. They and all who had been accessory to the murder were tried and convicted. Their accomplices were executed, but the earl and his wife were only banished. They lived many years, dragging out a most miserable life; as their former love, which had led them to murder, was changed to the most deadly hatred.

Robert Carr, Earl of Somerset, and the Countess of Essex.

Their Crime and Its Result.

King James I. in the meantime had found a new favorite in George Villiers, whom the king raised by successive promotions to the exalted rank of Duke of Buckingham, also creating him Prime Minister. This haughty favorite, who had an unbounded influence over the king, displayed himself in Parliament, his velvet dress glittering with diamonds, openly parading the wealth which he had acquired by the acceptance of enormous bribes. The only way by which even men of the highest rank could secure the king's favor, obtain and retain public office, or even come into the king's presence, was to bribe this handsome but corrupt royal favorite and Prime Minister.

George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham.

The foreign policy of James I. was no more satisfactory to the English people than was his management of the domestic affairs of the kingdom. The great Thirty Years' War which broke out in Germany in 1618 eventually involved most of the great powers of Europe. It was supposed that James I. would at least give his moral support to the Protestant cause in Germany, especially as his daughter Elizabeth was the wife of the Elector-Palatine, Frederick V., whom the Protestant Bohemians had chosen for their king, in opposition to the Austrian Ferdinand II., who was also Emperor of Germany.

James I. and the Elector-Palatine, Frederick V.

The English Parliament would have willingly voted funds to support the Protestant interest in Germany, but King James I. had more regard for the "divine right" of the Austrian despot than for the

James I. and the Bohemian Protestants.

rights and liberties of the Bohemian Protestants. He consented to aid his son-in-law to maintain his hereditary dominions, the Palatinate, but not to secure possession of Bohemia. The sympathies of England's Protestant king were wholly with Catholic Austria and Catholic Spain against the German Protestants.

James's Friendship for Spain.

The English people had a most implacable hatred for Spain; and after the death of Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, the king deliberately antagonized this sentiment of his subjects. He began to cultivate friendly relations with Spain, and commenced negotiations for the marriage of his son, Prince Charles, with a Spanish princess. The war party in England loudly demanded that war be declared against Spain, in the interest of the German Protestants; but James I. treated this demand with contempt, and became more intimate with Spain, England's most inveterate enemy.

Raleigh's Expedition to Spanish America.

For the purpose of inducing Spain to declare war against England, the English war party had caused an expedition to be prepared against the Spanish colony of Guiana, in South America, and induced the king to release Sir Walter Raleigh in 1616, that he might lead this expedition for the purpose of finding a gold mine of which he knew and which might enrich the king and his courtiers. The king, however, only released Raleigh without pardoning him of the crime of complicity in the plot to place Lady Arabella Stuart on the English throne.

His Defeat and Loss.

King James I. allowed the expedition to sail for Guiana, but treacherously informed the Spaniards of it. Raleigh was defeated with the loss of his eldest son and his entire fortune. On his return voyage Raleigh attempted to seize the Spanish treasure galleons, for the purpose of forcing Spain to declare war against England. To appease the clamors of the Spanish government, King James I. consented to

His Execution.

sacrifice Raleigh; and that distinguished personage was beheaded October 29, 1618, on the sentence for high treason which the king had kept hanging over his head for fourteen years.

His Fortitude.

Raleigh met death with manliness and dignity. He desired to see the ax, and felt the edge of it, remarking to the sheriff: "This is a sharp medicine, but a sure remedy for all evils." This cruel act is an indelible stain upon the character of James I., and at the time

Popular Indignation.

aroused great popular indignation. Sir Walter Raleigh had introduced potatoes into England from South America, and tobacco from the West Indies.

James I. and His Continued Partiality for Spain.

The English people and even the courtiers of James I. vainly appealed to the king to strike a blow in behalf of German Protestantism. Although the interests of his religion and the welfare of his son-in-law demanded his intervention, he steadfastly refused to prevent Spain from engaging in the struggle in Germany. He believed that

the Spanish king's friendship for himself would induce him at his request to relinquish his designs upon the Palatinate; but he was freed from this delusion when the Spanish army invaded and subdued his son-in-law's hereditary dominions, after that prince's expulsion from Bohemia.

**His Partial Submission to Public Sentiment.**

James I. was frightened by the burst of fury which broke forth from the English nation, and he was also angry for the moment at being duped so easily by Spain, so that he permitted a national subscription to provide funds to enable the Elector-Palatine to raise an army for his defense, and summoned a Parliament, which he opened with a speech which led his subjects to hope that he would at least act as a Protestant king should.

**His Renewed Friendship for Spain.**

James I. did obtain a cessation of hostilities for a single summer by threatening to make war on Spain if she continued her attack upon the Palatinate; but, when the Catholic League of Germany had effected the conquest of the Upper Palatinate, he entered into the same friendly relations with Philip IV. of Spain that he had cultivated with Philip III., leaving his son-in-law to his fate. During the remaining few years of his reign he abstained from intervention in favor of the Protestants of Continental Europe, giving the benefit of his friendship to Spain, being influenced thereto by his eagerness to secure a Spanish bride for his son.

**Boldness of the New Parliament.**

In the meantime the general demand of the English people for another Parliament forced the king to issue writs for a new election; and the Parliament of 1621 was the most famous of his reign, in consequence of the boldness with which it resisted the king's unlawful assumptions and attacked abuses and corruption.

**Impeachment, Dismissal, Fine and Imprisonment of Lord Bacon.**

This Parliament reasserted a privilege which had long fallen into disuse, by impeaching the Lord Chancellor, Lord Bacon, the greatest philosopher of England and one of the greatest of all time, on the charge of having accepted bribes and for other corrupt practices—an intolerable stain on the honor of his exalted station and of the English nation. He was dismissed from his high office with ignominy, and also condemned to pay a fine of forty thousand pounds, to imprisonment in the Tower and to perpetual exclusion from office. The king soon remitted his fine and imprisonment, but the stigma could never be removed from a name which otherwise would have shone as one of the brightest in English history. James I. would have stopped Bacon's impeachment as an attack upon the crown itself had not the Lord Chancellor incurred the hostility of the Duke of Buckingham, who induced the king to leave Bacon to his fate.

This Parliament then appealed to King James I. to aid the German Protestants, to make war on Spain instead of a treaty of alliance

Parliament Demands War with Spain.

with that power, and to secure a Protestant instead of a Catholic bride for the Prince of Wales. As the committee which the House of Commons sent to communicate their demands to the king was announced to His Majesty, he uttered the following ironical order: "Bring stools for the ambassadors."

James's Insolent Commands.

The boldness of the Commons offended the king, who forbade any further discussion of the affairs of state. He sharply told them that all their rights and powers were derived from himself and from the gracious permission of his ancestors, and that he would maintain their lawful liberties so long only as they kept within the bounds of their duty.

Manly Protest of the Commons.

When the king's commands were repeated by the committee on its return to the House, a member of the Commons said: "Let us pray, and then consider of this great business." The representatives of the English people replied to the king's insolent commands and assumptions in the following resolution: "The liberties, franchises, privileges and jurisdictions of Parliament are the ancient and undoubted birthright and inheritance of the subjects of England."

Record Torn out and Parliament Dissolved.

The king sent for the journals of the House of Commons, and with his own hand tore out the leaves containing the manly protest, after which he dissolved Parliament in great wrath; but within two years his necessities forced him to call for the election of a new Parliament. Although James I. might destroy the records of Parliament, he could not extinguish the spirit of liberty enkindled afresh in the hearts of the patriot Commons and of the English people whom they represented.

Royal Extravagance and Necessities.

It was a very fortunate circumstance for the cause of English constitutional freedom that the extravagant government of James I. squandered more money even in peace than that of Elizabeth had ever expended in war; as his necessities threw him into growing dependence upon Parliament.

Death of Prince Henry.

Prince Henry, the king's eldest son, died in 1612, to the great grief of the English nation, which thus experienced a great loss, as the dignity and orderly virtue of the prince's little court was a silent rebuke to the corrupt and extravagant royal household. "Baby Charles," the king's remaining son, then became the heir to the crowns of England and Scotland.

Proposed Marriage of Prince Charles with the Spanish Infanta.

Notwithstanding the deep public feeling and the long cherished policy of England, James I. resolved to secure the marriage of his son to a Spanish Infanta, thus disregarding the remonstrances of Parliament and of all his nobles and counselors except the Duke of Buckingham. To please Spain, he refused to aid the German Protestants, thus allowing the struggle for Bohemia to grow into the great Thirty Years' War, while he suspended all the laws against the Roman

Catholics at home. King Philip IV. of Spain was in favor of the marriage, but resolved to profit by the eagerness of James I. and make him pay dearly for the match.

**Fruitless Nuptial Journey of Prince Charles to Spain.**

In 1623 Prince Charles and the Duke of Buckingham undertook a romantic journey into Spain to see the Infanta and complete the marriage contract. When they arrived at Madrid they were treated with great respect by King Philip IV.; but the insolent manners of the Duke of Buckingham offended the haughty Spaniards; and, as he perceived that he would not find any favor from a Spanish queen when Prince Charles became King of England, he used his great influence against the match, thus breaking off the negotiations with the Spanish court. This result was celebrated in England with bonfires and unbounded rejoicings. Prince Charles was affianced to Henrietta Maria, sister of King Louis XIII. of France; but before the marriage was consummated King James I. died of the ague, March 27, 1625. It was during the reign of James I. that Shakespeare died, A. D. 1616.

**Death of James I.**

**Charles I., A. D. 1625–1649.**

Charles I., the son and successor of James I., was in his twenty-fifth year when he became King of England and Scotland. He had been very popular with all classes before his accession, and the English people had hoped for much by the change of sovereigns. Charles I. was a remarkably handsome man, with a body of middle stature, of great natural vigor and finely proportioned. He was gracious and dignified in his bearing, and "of a sweet but melancholy aspect." He excelled in horsemanship and manly sports, and was endowed with many of the qualities of an excellent sovereign.

**His Physical Traits.**

**His Character.**

Charles I. was unsurpassed in domestic virtue by any sovereign that has reigned over England. He showed a good example to his courtiers and subjects in the morality and regularity of his conduct. He was moderate in all his habits and expenses, refined in his manners, humane and gentle in his disposition, kind and affectionate by nature, and a most tender husband and father. He was hasty in temper, but generous and forgiving. He had great taste for art and literature, and his mind was highly cultivated. He had extraordinary talents for reasoning and argument; but, on account of his indecision of character, he seldom acted as wisely as he could talk, and was frequently swayed by the counsels of men of inferior capacity.

**His Doctrine of the "Divine Right of Kings."**

But unfortunately for King Charles I., he had imbibed his father's ideas of absolute power; and he ascended the thrones of England and Scotland with the resolute determination to make himself the absolute master of his subjects. He considered himself superior to the laws of the realm, and looked upon every effort to restrict his power within the limits of the English Constitution as downright treason to the crown. Ascending the English throne with such ideas of the "divine

right of kings," at the most critical period of England's history, he was not likely to reform the evils from which England had suffered so long.

**His Falsity and Insincerity.**

Charles's fatal defect as a king was his falsity of character, which canceled the most solemn engagements and deprived him of all claims to confidence. It may have been his misfortune, rather than his crime, that he was unable to believe in the wisdom or even in the honesty of any theory of government but his own, or to perceive that his throne could never be firm and stable until it was "broad-based upon the people's will."

**His Marriage with the Princess Henrietta Maria of France.**

A few weeks after his accession, Charles I. married the Princess Henrietta Maria, daughter of the murdered Henry IV. of France, to whom he had been betrothed during the latter part of his father's reign, as we have already noticed. This royal marriage was not pleasing to the English people, as the new queen was a Roman Catholic. A retinue of priests of her own religious faith accompanied her to England, and these priests undertook to interfere in the affairs of the English court to such an extent that numberless quarrels resulted therefrom.

**The New Queen's Unpopular Act.**

These priests induced the queen to make a pilgrimage to Tyburn, the place for the hanging of the lowest malefactors, and where some Roman Catholics had been executed during the reign of Henry VIII. This proceeding excited such intense popular indignation in England that the queen's French attendants were sent back to their own country. The French court submitted an apology for their conduct, and the queen was permitted to have a Roman Catholic bishop and twelve Roman Catholics priests attached to her household.

**Constitutional Liberty Dormant.**

Little had been heard of constitutional liberty in England during the entire period that the Tudor dynasty occupied the English throne —a result consequent upon the destruction of the mediæval baronage of England in the Wars of the Roses. As we have now come to the threshold of a renewal of the struggle for English constitutional liberty, a brief retrospect will render the course of events upon which we are now about to enter more intelligible.

**Absolute Royal Power.**

Mediæval civilization in Europe was based on the Feudal System; and in England both went down in the Wars of the Roses, along with the proud baronage founded by the Norman Conqueror. The Wars of the Roses reduced England to the verge of anarchy; and a stable throne was the only power that saved the country, or that was able to save it, from total anarchy. All parties and classes of Englishmen therefore turned to the throne with the instinct of self-preservation.

**The Classes.**

The new English nobility, the landowners and the moneyed classes, remembering the communistic and leveling doctrines of John Ball and

the leaders of Wat Tyler's Rebellion, looked to the throne for protection from another peasant revolt.

**Catholic Church.**

The Roman Catholic Church, conscious of the silent but vigorous growth of the ideas implanted by Wycliffe, turned to the throne to save it from another reformation.

**The Masses.**

The English masses, having suffered from the evils of a disputed succession, were ready to welcome any dynasty with sufficient strength to save them from the horrors of another civil war.

**Degeneracy of the House of Commons.**

The House of Commons—that great hope of the English nation during the reigns of the Plantagenets—had degenerated into a mere appendage of the crown, in consequence of a sweeping restriction of the elective franchise and a wholesale corruption in the election of its members; and under some of the Tudor sovereigns it had become the great instrument of royal oppression.

**Absolute Rule of the Tudors.**

During the Tudor period the English sovereigns gradually came into possession of all the powers of Church and State, thus making themselves absolute monarchs. It was natural that the sovereign should become arbitrary. It was not strange or unnatural that he should grow despotic.

**Undermining Forces at Work.**

But, even in the very midst of this absolute rule, silent forces were sapping the foundations of this absolutism; and these forces were destined to effect the overthrow of this absolute royal power in the course of human events. The invention of the art of printing tended to a general diffusion of knowledge and a consequent elevation of the masses. An enlightened public sentiment concerning the relation of sovereign and subject, that was far in advance of the theory and practice of the government, was silently growing up in England. As convictions of the sacredness of human rights grew strong, faith in the doctrine of the "divine right of kings" grew weak. The advocates of that doctrine claimed the Christian Scriptures as their authority, basing their claims upon St. Paul's injunction: "Resist not the powers that be, for they are ordained of God." As the kings were "the powers that be," they claimed that resistance to them was opposition and disobedience to God.

**James I. and Parliament.**

As we have seen, James I. was a firm believer in the "divine right of kings," and was extremely jealous of any encroachment on the royal prerogative. He was resolved to preserve and extend the absolute power which the Tudors had wielded; and, as we have seen, he was consequently involved in a continual contest with the English Parliament, which was determined to assert its own rights and to uphold the liberties of the English people. Though he repeatedly dissolved Parliaments, the next were always sure to be more obstinate than their predecessors.

**Charles I. and Parliament.**

It was therefore evident that a collision between king and people was at hand in England during the reign of James I. At his death there was a brief lull in the civil storm that was soon to break over the head of his son and successor. It will always be wondered how Charles I. could be so thoroughly blind to the signs of the times and the spirit of the age that he should not profit by his father's political errors, but that he should obstinately pursue his father's foolish policy.

**Issue Clearly Defined.**

The struggle which was soon to hurry England into the throes of revolution was defined very clearly. It was constitutional liberty versus royal prerogative—an oppressed people against a tyrannical king. The English people, whom the crown alone was able to rescue from the robber barons during the reign of Henry II., and whom the patriot barons alone could protect against royal tyranny during the reign of Henry III.—this great English people had finally outgrown dependence on king and baron, and eventually proved stronger than both. This great people thus became the pioneers of modern constitutional freedom against the "divine right of kings."

**Anti-Catholic Feeling.**

At the time of the accession of Charles I. public feeling in England ran high against Roman Catholicism. The Thirty Years' War in Germany, which had commenced in a contest between the Elector-Palatine Frederick V. and Ferdinand II. of Austria for the crown of Bohemia, had, as we have seen, widened into a life-and-death struggle between Roman Catholics and Protestants.

**English Sympathy for the Elector-Palatine.**

In addition to the sympathy which English Protestants felt for their brethren in Germany, they were naturally interested in behalf of the Elector-Palatine because he was the son-in-law of King James I. Spain having openly taken sides with the Emperor Ferdinand II. and the Catholic cause, England had entered the lists against Spain, in addition to sending a small army to the aid of the Elector-Palatine.

**Charles I. and the House of Commons.**

The war with Spain lagged through the indifference of the Duke of Buckingham, whom Charles I. retained as Prime Minister, and to whose pernicious influence the young king completely surrendered himself. As Charles I. began his reign with an empty exchequer he called upon Parliament for a subsidy; but the House of Commons was now composed of able and patriotic men, who loved their country and who were keenly aware of the perils which menaced her. Said one of these sturdy Commons: "England is the last monarchy who yet retains her liberties. Let them not perish now!"

**The King's Arbitrary Taxation and Dissolution of Parliament.**

Suspicious of the king's intentions and watchful of the liberties of England, the Commons House of Parliament granted the customs called *tonnage* and *poundage* for but one year, instead of for the king's lifetime. Charles I. resented this limitation and refused to accept the vote, and then proceeded to levy the customs on his own authority.

Parliament proceeded to discuss the public grievances, whereupon it was dissolved by the angry king, who had fully resolved to enforce the doctrine of the "divine right of kings." The king's resort to a forced loan afforded but a temporary relief, and aroused the most intense popular indignation. The English people were fully as resolved to assert their rights and liberties as the king was to carry into practice his notions of the royal prerogative.

**Popular Indignation.**

An English expedition under the Duke of Buckingham against Cadiz ended in failure, leaving King Charles I. deeply involved in debt. In his necessities the king was obliged to summon a new Parliament. This Parliament convened in 1626; but, instead of voting a grant of supplies to the king, the House of Commons, under the guidance of that fearless patriot, Sir John Eliot, proceeded to impeach the Ministers of the Crown. Charges of corruption against the Duke of Buckingham were carried in the House; and Eliot, in a speech of fiery eloquence, arraigned the royal favorite at the bar of the House of Lords. The angry king sent the sturdy patriot to imprisonment in the Tower. The refusal of the Commons to act on public affairs forced the baffled king to release the patriotic Eliot, but their request for the dismissal of the Duke of Buckingham caused the exasperated king to dissolve this Parliament also.

**The New Parliament's Impeachment of the Duke of Buckingham.**

**Sir John Eliot.**

The illegal taxation, in the form of *benevolences* and forced loans, which the king now resorted to, threw the whole kingdom into a ferment and aroused the English people to resistance. Although many of the clergy preached the doctrine of *absolute passive obedience*, men in every part of England refused to give or lend to the king, and the royal commissioners were driven from the towns with cries of "A Parliament! a Parliament! else no subsidies!" Poor men were punished for their refusal by being drafted into the army or navy. Two hundred gentlemen of fortune were imprisoned and finally brought before the Council. Among these was the resolute John Hampden, that sturdy patriot and lover of liberty whose name has ever since been cherished by Englishmen. He declared that he "could be content to lend," but he feared to bring upon himself the curse in Magna Charta against all who violated that solemn compact between king and people. He was accordingly punished by a still more severe imprisonment.

**Popular Resistance to Arbitrary Taxation.**

**John Hampden.**

Though Spain and Catholic Germany were now in open hostility to England, and though the war with Spain had resulted in miserable failure, Charles I. had the rashness to rush into a war with France also, at a time when he was utterly penniless and at variance with his subjects. As he had broken the stipulation which had been made between England and France when he became betrothed to the Princess Henrietta Maria, which provided for toleration to the Roman Catholics

**The War with Spain and France.**

Disastrous English Naval Expedition to France.

in England, Richelieu and Olivarez, the able Prime Ministers of France and Spain respectively, planned a joint invasion of England. The Duke of Buckingham sought to checkmate this Franco-Spanish scheme of invasion by an attack on France. He sailed from England with a large fleet to the relief of La Rochelle, the Huguenot stronghold, which was then besieged by the French Catholics; but his mismanagement cost him two-thirds of his expedition and accomplished nothing. This second naval disaster of the Duke of Buckingham, more humiliating than that against Cadiz, left King Charles I. still more deeply in debt, thus forcing him to summon another Parliament.

The New Parliament.

The English people, now thoroughly aroused to a sense of the danger with which their liberties were threatened, returned a House of Commons more resolute in its hostility to the king than its predecessors. This Parliament of 1628 also demanded a redress of popular grievances as the condition on which it would vote a grant of money. It arrayed its grievances and formulated its demands in a famous

Petition of Right.

document called the *Petition of Right*, A. D. 1628, which has justly been styled "The Second Great Charter of English Liberties." After enumerating the laws of Edward I. and Edward III. which guaranteed the rights of the subject, and complaining that, in addition to arbitrary taxes, imprisonments and executions, large bodies of soldiers and sailers had recently been quartered in private houses, to the grat grievance and vexation of the people, the petition closed by "humbly praying His Most Excellent Majesty" for relief from all these grievances, "according to the laws and statutes of this realm."

Parliament's Remonstrance.

The king's refusal to sign this great document was answered by Parliament in another state paper called a "Remonstrance on the State of the Kingdom." The remonstrance was aimed at the Duke of Buckingham; and when that official's name was mentioned the Speaker of the House of Commons forbade any further discussion, saying that he held a royal order against permitting any member to speak against the Ministers of the Crown.

Uproar in the House of Commons.

This direct royal interference with the right of free speech, one of the most unquestioned privileges of the English Parliament, produced a scene in the House of Commons that words fail to describe. The eloquent Sir John Eliot, who was addressing the House, sank into his seat, stunned with amazement. After a few moments of death-like silence, followed by sounds of suppressed excitement, the House was in an uproar. Exclamations of amazement, grief and indignation broke forth from the astounded Commons. Some wept and others prayed. Members took the floor to address the House, and then sank into their seats, overcome with emotion. The venerable Sir Edward Coke finally arose, and in bitter invective denounced the Duke of

Buckingham as the author of all the perils that threatened the liberties of England.

Royal Signature of the Petition of Right.

Alarmed by the dangers that menaced his favorite Minister, King Charles I. sought to allay the storm by signing the Petition of Right. But it was too late. The House of Commons had resolved upon the destruction of the Duke of Buckingham, and pressed the "Remonstrance on the State of the Kingdom;" whereupon the king hastily prorogued the House. The public joy at the king's action in signing the Petition of Right was signalized by ringing bells and blazing bonfires, as the English people then thought that royal oppression would be ended.

Assassination of the Duke of Buckingham.

The Duke of Buckingham soon ceased to be an object of anxiety to either the king or the Commons. While preparing to take charge of another expedition to relieve La Rochelle, he was assassinated at Portsmouth, August 23, 1628, by a melancholy and enthusiastic Puritan Irishman named Felton, who had been discharged from the public service. The assassin had followed the obnoxious Prime Minister for several days like a shadow, without being able to effect his purpose. Finally, as the Duke of Buckingham was passing through a doorway, he turned to speak to Sir Thomas Fryer, who was following him, when Felton suddenly reached over Sir Thomas's shoulder and stabbed the duke in the breast with a knife. The duke exclaimed: "The villain has killed me!" He then pulled the knife from his wound and fell dead.

Arrest, Trial, Conviction and Execution of the Assassin.

No one had seen the blow or the person who inflicted it; but a hat being picked up, on the inside of which was sewed a paper containing four or five lines of the "Remonstrance on the State of the Kingdom," it was conjectured that the hat belonged to the assassin; and, while those present were conjecturing whose hat it might be, a man without a hat was seen walking very composedly before the door. One of the bystanders cried out: "Here he is!" Others ran up, inquiring: "Which is he?" The man replied very sedately: "I am he!" He disdained denying the murder, but gloried in the act, saying that he had considered the Duke of Buckingham an enemy of his country, and therefore deserving of death. When asked at whose instigation he had murdered the duke he replied that they need not trouble themselves as to that matter, that his conscience alone prompted him to do the deed, and that no man on earth could induce him to act contrary to its dictates. He was tried, condemned and executed, dying with the same degree of constancy. There were many who admired not only his fortitude, but also the deed for which he met death on the scaffold, so fully was the murdered royal favorite detested.

"The King Can Do No Wrong."

An explanation is necessary concerning the persistency with which the House of Commons pursued the Duke of Buckingham even after King Charles I. had assumed the responsibility of all the offenses charged against him. It was then, as it is now, a settled principle of the English monarchy that "the king can do no wrong." In case of wrong doing by the government, the king's Ministers are held responsible; and the only way to coerce or punish the king himself, without the extreme resort of revolution, is the removal or punishment of the Ministers.

Another Uproar in the House of Commons.

The House of Commons, at its next session, in 1629, summoned the collectors of the illegal taxes to its bar. They appeared, but refused to answer, pleading the king's orders. The Speaker, Sir John Finch, was about to adjourn the House, in obedience to a royal order. The House was instantly in an uproar. The Speaker was held down in his chair by some of the members, while others kept the doors locked against the king's messenger until some resolutions offered by Sir John Eliot were passed by acclamation rather than by vote. These resolutions denounced "as a capital enemy of the kingdom any Minister who shall seek to change the established religion or advise the levying of taxes without consent of Parliament." The House then unlocked its doors and allowed itself to be dissolved.

The King's Personal Government.

Upon the occasion of this dissolution, Charles I. announced that he would rule thenceforth without a Parliament. The earnestness of the king's threat was proven by eleven years of personal government, during which Parliament was not once assembled, and which constitute one of the gloomiest periods in English history. Nine of the leaders of the popular party were imprisoned in the Tower, among whom was the illustrious patriot, Sir John Eliot, who died within the walls of that historic state prison.

English Fleet at La Rochelle.

The English fleet arrived before La Rochelle too late to relieve the beleaguered Huguenots, who were forced to surrender that stronghold under the very eyes of their English allies. Poverty soon compelled King Charles I. to make peace with his foreign foes.

New Royal Policy.

After the assassination of the Duke of Buckingham, Charles I. inaugurated a new policy, amounting almost to a change in the Constitution of England. Hitherto the king had chosen his personal favorites, or men whom he considered able statesmen, for his Ministers, regardless of the opinions or wishes of the people.

The King's New Ministers.

Charles I. now selected his chief Ministers from the leaders of the popular party which had opposed the new royal assumptions, thus making it their interest to maintain the power which had made them its representatives. But the king did not derive all the advantages from this policy that he expected; as his views were opposed so directly

to the opinions of the Puritans that the leaders whom he had gained lost all influence with their party from that moment, and were even pursued as traitors with implacable resentment.

Sir Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford.

The chief of these popular leaders who accepted office under the king was Sir Thomas Wentworth, whom the king raised by successive promotions to the rank of Earl of Strafford, and whom he made his Prime Minister. Wentworth had spoken in favor of popular rights only because of his hatred and jealousy of the Duke of Buckingham; but no sooner had the assassination of that royal favorite made way for his rise into power than he threw off the mask and used his great abilities in building up the power of the crown. The king also raised his new Prime Minister to the dignity of Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. After subduing that restless country, the new Lord Lieutenant raised a fleet and army therefrom to enforce the royal will in England and Scotland. The arbitrary court of the *Star Chamber* had jurisdiction over offenses against the king.

William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury.

Charles I. also attempted to establish the Episcopal Church on a firmer basis, and to suppress Puritanism in England and Presbyterianism in Scotland, with the view of checking the rapid growth of republican principles among the English people. For the purpose of accomplishing this end, the king appointed the zealous William Laud, Bishop of London, to the dignity of Archbishop of Canterbury. Laud caused the Cathedral of St. Paul's, in London, to be consecrated anew, and the churches to be supplied with numerous images and ornaments, and imposed upon the Puritans ceremonies and observances hitherto unpracticed by the Church of England.

His Religious Tyranny.

Archbishop Laud, who thus became the chief agent in a religious tyranny which almost drove both England and Scotland to revolt, improved every opportunity to preach submission to the "Lord's Anointed" in the payment of taxes; and he demanded from English Puritans and Scotch Presbyterians a strict conformity to his own rules for public worship.

Charles I. and Scotland.

Charles I. had inherited his father's hatred of the Scotch Presbyterians; and, by a most illegal assumption of power, he sought to impose upon Scotland the liturgy and usages of the Church of England. He also renewed his father's law encouraging public sports and recreations on Sunday afternoons, and commanded all clergymen to read his proclamation to that effect after morning service in the churches. For refusing compliance with this order, multitudes of the Puritan clergy were ejected from their livings by order of Archbishop Laud. The new Primate invested the arbitrary court of *High Commission* with jurisdiction over offenses against the Church, and that infamous tribunal pronounced severe punishments upon all who manifested any

Court of High Commission.

Prynne's Punishment.

opposition to his ecclesiastical tyranny. Thus Prynne, a Puritan, was sentenced to be exposed in the pillory, to lose both his ears and to be imprisoned for life, for writing a volume against dancing, masks and theatrical amusements—affairs in which the king and his courtiers delighted.

Council of the North.

Besides the Courts of High Commission and the Star Chamber, there was a *Council of the North*, which was vested with almost absolute authority in the northern counties of England. The proceedings of these arbitrary tribunals endangered civil and religious liberty in England, and threw the whole kingdom into a ferment. The Puritan preachers who had lost their offices traveled through the country, denouncing the arbitrary measures of Laud as preliminary steps to the reëstablishment of popery in England; and, by their passionate appeals, they excited the people against the king, the Primate and the clergy.

Puritan Preachers.

Puritan Emigration to New England.

Archbishop Laud's ecclesiastical tyranny led to a large Puritan emigration to New England. Patents were secured and companies organized for that purpose. The Puritans proceeded reluctantly to the place of embarkation, with their eyes looking longingly toward the distant refuge of the Pilgrim Fathers across the billowy deep, yet moist with tears as they turned their backs upon their native land and upon scenes that were dear to them; their hearts swelling with grief as the shores of "Dear Old Mother England" faded from their sight, yet rising to lofty purpose and sublime resignation as they abandoned home and country to enjoy the blessings of religious freedom in a strange land. They fully counted the cost of their forced migration —the peril, poverty and hardships of their new homes in the American wilderness.

Massachusetts, Connecticut and Maryland Colonies.

The Puritan exodus continued until the New England coast was dotted with settlements. John Endicott founded Salem in 1628. John Winthrop and eight hundred followers founded Boston in 1630. Lord Say-and-Seal and Lord Brooke obtained a charter for the settlement of the region now comprising the State of Connecticut; and under this charter the Rev. Thomas Hooker founded Hartford, while the Rev. John Davenport founded New Haven. Lord Baltimore obtained a grant of the territory now embraced in the State of Maryland, as an asylum for persecuted English Roman Catholics; and the colony under this charter made its first settlement at St. Mary's in 1634.

Attempted Emigration of Hampden and Cromwell.

During the interval between the dissolution of the Parliament of 1629 and the assembling of the Long Parliament in 1640 twenty thousand Puritans had migrated from Old England to New England. It is said that even John Hampden and Oliver Cromwell once embarked for America, but the sailing of their ship was stopped by a Royal

Order in Council. Even Charles I. never committed a greater blunder, as these two sturdy patriots became the leaders of the mighty revolution which cost the king his throne and his life. Hampden had purchased a tract of land on Narraganset Bay.

**The Star Chamber.**

It was by the advice of the Earl of Strafford that Charles I. resolved to govern without a Parliament. The lawless exactions of tonnage and poundage were still continued. While the Court of High Commission was doing its tyrannical work in the name of religion, the Star Chamber was crushing out every vestige of civil liberty. The officers of this infamous tribunal surpassed even the lawyers of Henry VII. in the ingenuity with which they entrapped and robbed the people. Obsolete laws and customs—such as had passed away with the feudal times in which they had originated, but which had never been formally repealed—were revived, and all who offended against them were fined. Knighthood was forced on the gentry unless commuted with money. The forest laws were executed with rigor, and poachers were punished with heavy fines.

**The King's Efforts to Restrict London.**

James I. had endeavored to check the growth of London by a royal order defining its corporate limits. Charles I. ordered every house since erected to be torn down unless its owner paid into the royal treasury a sum equal to three years' rent. The execution of this relentless order rendered hundreds of the poor houseless. Monopolies prevailed in England to a greater extent under Charles I. than under Elizabeth or James I., raising the price of the necessaries of life to an exorbitant figure.

**Ship Money.**

The climax of national forbearance was reached when King Charles I. revived an old tax of the times of Alfred the Great and Ethelred II., called *ship money*, because it was used for the support of the navy. From the times of those Saxon kings this duty had been imposed as a war tax upon the maritime counties for the defense of the English coast, and those monarchs had presumed only to call for this tax with the advice and consent of the Witenagemote; while Charles I. ordered the levy of ship money upon all the English people, inland as well as maritime, for general purposes and in time of peace, demanding it by his own arbitrary will.

**Trial of John Hampden**

Sir John Eliot, the early champion of English constitutional liberty under Charles I., was in his grave; but he had a worthy successor in the person of John Hampden, of whom we have already spoken, and who was a Buckinghamshire farmer of moderate means. This illustrious patriot resolutely refused to pay any ship money, in order to bring the matter to a legal test in the courts. Hampden was consequently tried in the Exchequer Chamber in 1637, and the eyes of all England were upon the proceedings. Even the Earl of Clarendon,

in his *History of the Rebellion*, says that Hampden "grew the argument of all tongues, every man inquiring who and what he was, that durst at his own charge support the liberty and prosperity of the kingdom."

**Hampden's Moral Victory.**

After a long delay, the Court of Exchequer gave its decision. Four of the twelve judges, though holding their places only during the king's pleasure, had the moral courage to give a sentence in favor of the resolute patriot. Seven decided against him, and one gave an evasive answer. The moral victory remained with Hampden; for, though he was defeated through royal influence, and though the court's sentence placed all the property in England at the king's disposal, the king's injustice was made apparent to all England, and the public mind was educated to resistance.

**Scottish Rebellion against Charles I.**

While the royal assumptions were thus violently opposed in England, the attempts of King Charles I. to enforce the Episcopal form of worship in Scotland produced a formidable rebellion in that country in 1637, which lasted several years. Charles I. had visited Scotland in 1633, and was then crowned king of that country in the Abbey Church of Holyrood with imposing ceremonies. On that occasion the clergy gave great offense to the Scots by wearing the vestments of the Church of England.

**His Attempts to Force Episcopacy on the Scots.**

Charles I. increased the ill feeling of the Scots by issuing an order to the Scottish clergy to wear surplices, and commanding the Scottish bishops to wear rochets and sleeves instead of the Geneva cloak as formerly. A change was also made in the manner of choosing the *Lords of the Articles*, the committee which directed the legislation of the Scottish Parliament, thus placing the choice entirely in the hands of the bishops. This was done by the king's direct order, and the members of the Scottish Parliament opposed to the measure addressed a remonstrance to the king. He treated this remonstrance as a political offense, and imprisoned Lord Balmerinoch, who presented it. He afterward liberated the captive Scottish lord; but the Scots generally considered this action as the result of fear, and not as a mark of the king's good will toward them.

**His Book of Canons and Liturgy.**

In 1637 Charles I caused a book of canons to be prepared for the government of the Scottish Church; and on his own authority, without the ratification of it by the Scottish Parliament, commanded the Scots to use it instead of their Book of Discipline. Archbishop Laud soon afterward prepared a liturgy, and King Charles I. commanded the Scottish clergy to use it in their churches instead of the Book of Common Order, which was then in general use by them.

The attempt of the Dean of Edinburgh to use the Episcopal liturgy in St. Giles's Church, July 16, 1637, produced a violent tumult. The

Dean and the Bishop of Edinburgh were driven from the church by an enraged mob, amid cries of "Pope!" "Antichrist!" "Stone him!" Other riots ensued. **Outbreak in Edinburgh.**

The king issued a proclamation calling upon the malcontents to disperse to their homes, and refused to listen to the petitions which were addressed to him from every portion of Scotland. His obstinacy inflamed the popular discontent in Scotland, and the Episcopal bishops and other members of the Privy Council were mobbed in Edinburgh. **Royal Proclamation.**

At length a committee, composed of four members from each class of Scotland—nobles, gentry, clergy and burgesses—and known as the *Tables*, was formed to represent the Scottish people in their contest with the government. This committee was more troublesome than the mob; as it forced its way into the council chamber, where it insisted on discussing the public grievances, and demanded the removal of the Episcopal bishops. **Committee of the Tables.**

The king replied by a threatening proclamation; whereupon the Scots renewed the Covenant, which this time contained a provision for the overthrow of the Episcopal bishops. The previous Covenants had been signed by the notables of Scotland only; but this *National Covenant*, which was industriously circulated, was signed by nine-tenth of the Scottish people of all classes, rich and poor, noble and peasant, A. D. 1638. For this reason the national party of Scotland were called *Covenanters*. **Scottish National Covenant.**

The closing paragraph of the National Covenant, showing both the tenor of the Covenant and the temper of the Scottish people, was as follows: "We promise and swear, by the name of the Lord our God, to continue in the profession and obedience of the said religion, and that we shall defend the same, and resist all the contrary errors and corruptions, according to our vocation and the utmost of that power which God has put into our hands, all the days of our life." **Its Last Paragraph.**

Later in the year 1638 King Charles I. sent the Marquis of Hamilton to Scotland as Lord High Commissioner, fully empowered to adjust all difficulties. The Covenanters demanded the obolition of the Court of High Commission, the Episcopal canons and liturgy, and the summoning of a free assembly of the Scottish Church and a free Scottish Parliament. In accordance with his instructions, the Lord High Commissioner evaded a reply to the Scottish demands, for the purpose of giving the king time to assemble his troops to force the Scots to obedience. **Demands of the Covenanters.**

Charles I. suddenly promised to grant the Scottish demands; and an assembly of the Scottish Church was summoned, which convened at Glasgow, November 21, 1638, under the presidency of the Marquis of Hamilton as Lord High Commissioner. Several days afterward an **Scottish Church Assembly.**

Its Action.

effort was made to bring the Episcopal bishops to trial. The Marquis of Hamilton then withdrew, and ordered the assembly to disperse. The assembly refused to obey, and proceeded with the trial of the bishops, deposing all of them and excommunicating eight of them. The assembly also abolished the Episcopal canons and liturgy, and repealed all the acts of assemblies since 1606.

Reduction of the Highlanders by the Covenanters.

The Earl of Huntley ruled the Highlanders of Scotland as the king's lieutenant. The Highlanders had rejected the Covenant, and the Covenanters resolved to force them to accept it. A strong army, consisting largely of veterans who had served as auxiliaries in the cause of the German Protestants in the Thirty Years' War, was raised and placed under the command of the Earl of Montrose, who subdued the Highlanders after a brief campaign, and compelled them to acknowledge the authority of the Covenanters.

The Scottish and Royal Armies.

Another army of Scottish Covenanters under General Leslie, who had served under the valiant King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden in the Thirty Years' War, was sent to oppose the royal army which King Charles I. was leading northward to reduce the Covenanters to submission. General Leslie took an admirable position commanding the king's line of march; and Charles I., perceiving that he would certainly be defeated in case he attacked the Scottish general, consented to treat with General Leslie for peace. By the treaty known as the

Pacification of Berwick.

*Pacification of Berwick*, June 9, 1639, it was agreed that the questions at issue between the king and his Scottish subjects should be referred to a free assembly for adjustment, and that in the meantime both armies should be disbanded and the Scottish fortresses surrendered to the king.

Charles I. and the Scottish Parliament.

An assembly was summoned and convened at Edinburgh, and this assembly ratified all that the Glasgow assembly had done. The Scottish Parliament assembled June 2, 1640, confirmed the acts of the Edinburgh and Glasgow assemblies, and ordered every Scot to sign the Covenant on penalty of severe punishment. King Charles I. adjourned the Scottish Parliament; but it assembled again in spite of him, and appealed to France for assistance. Upon hearing of this action of the Scottish Parliament, the king sent Lord Loudon, one of the Scottish commissioners, to imprisonment in the Tower, and made preparations to invade Scotland.

English Sympathy for the Revolted Scots.

The king's arbitrary treatment of the Scots had aroused a strong sympathy in England for them, as the English saw that the Covenanters were fighting in the cause of religious freedom against arbitrary royal power. Charles I. therefore had much trouble in raising an army in England to subdue the Scots, and the one which he collected was mutinous and discontented. But the Scots raised a strong force,

which crossed the border into England, August 20, 1640, and took possession of Durham, Tynemouth and Shields without striking a blow; while the Scottish army at home seized the Castles of Edinburgh and Dumbarton. King Charles I. was again obliged to treat with the Scots; and by the Treaty of Ripon he granted all the demands of the Covenanters, while both armies were disbanded. The king visited Edinburgh and summoned the Scottish Parliament, but he made no effort to interfere with its action, and confirmed its right to meet once in three years, A. D. 1641.

**Treaty of Ripon.**

In the meantime the constitutional struggle in England was renewed with increased vigor, and matters were speedily brought to a crisis. When the zealous Scots, who went forth to battle with prayer, and who had imbibed the spirit as well as the faith of John Knox, had marched into England and threatened York, King Charles I. found himself obliged to summon another Parliament, after an interval of eleven years, to solicit aid against the Scotch rebels.

**A Crisis and a New Parliament.**

The Parliament just summoned, instead of voting supplies against the rebellious Scots, which they consented to do only upon condition of a redress of grievances, began to attack the king's unlawful assumptions and to discuss the grievances of the English people. In a fit of exasperation Charles I. dissolved this Parliament after a stormy session of three weeks. Said St. John, one of its members: "Things must go worse before they go better." They quickly went worse.

**Dissolution of the New Parliament.**

A Great Council of Peers met at York as a last expedient, but accomplished nothing except delay. The advancing Scots had reached Newcastle and were on the march for York. Archbishop Laud was mobbed in London, and the Court of High Commission was broken up at St. Paul's Cathedral. All England was on the verge of revolt against the king, whose necessities forced him to summon another Parliament.

**Advancing Scots and Riot in London.**

This Parliament, which assembled November 3, 1640, is known in history as the *Long Parliament*, on account of the extraordinary length of its existence, which lasted thirteen years. Its leading members were Sir Arthur Haslerig, John Hampden, John Pym and Oliver Cromwell, who were opposed to absolute monarchical power and Episcopal church government, and who were staunch advocates of republican, or popular institutions.

**The Long Parliament.**

Instead of affording the king any assistance against the Scottish insurgents, the Long Parliament entered into a secret league with them. Parliament next impeached the Earl of Strafford for high treason, in endeavoring to overthrow the constitutional liberties of England; but the letter of the law provided no penalty for this worst of political crimes, restricting its punishments to offenses against the king's person.

**Impeachment, Trial and Execution of the Earl of Strafford.**

Both Houses of Parliament therefore passed a *Bill of Attainder*. The king vainly endeavored to save his favorite Minister. The Commons were resolved upon his destruction. After a trial of seventy days and a dignified and eloquent defense, the Earl of Strafford was declared guilty and condemned to death. After much hesitation and in a moment of weakness, the king signed the death-warrant; and the unfortunate Earl of Strafford was beheaded on Tower Hill, May 12, 1641. He died with firmness and resolution. The popular joy and relief manifested itself in shouts of triumph, and bonfires blazed in every city of England.

John Pym's Threat.

Thus was literally executed the threat of John Pym, one of the most active of the Puritan members of the House of Commons, who, when the Earl of Strafford had left the popular party to serve the king, had said to him: "You have left us; but we will not leave you while your head is on your shoulders."

The King's Vain Efforts.

The king's signature to the death-warrant had been extorted from him, but no suffering of his own caused Charles I. so severe a pang as the execution of his faithful friend and servant. Even after signing the warrant the king had sent a letter to the House of Lords, entreating them to confer with the House of Commons, and to obtain the consent of that body to a mitigation of the sentence or a delay in its execution; but the Commons were inexorable.

Fate of Archbishop Laud.

Archbishop Laud was also impeached by the Commons, and was imprisoned in the Tower, while all his property was confiscated. Three years afterward he was tried at the bar of the House of Lords, for high treason in endeavoring to destroy the religious liberties of the people of England. He was declared guilty, and was beheaded January 10, 1645.

Important Bill.

On the very day of the sentence of the Earl of Strafford to death, King Charles I. also signed a bill of vast importance, providing that Parliament should not be dissolved, prorogued or adjourned without its own consent, and that a Parliament should be held at least once in three years.

Reform Measures of the Long Parliament.

The Long Parliament went about the work of reform in earnest. The Courts of the Star Chamber and High Commission were abolished; patriots were released from prison; the judgment against John Hampden was annulled; ship money and arbitrary taxation were again forbidden; and the king's instruments for oppression were brought to trial, from the judges who had decided against Hampden to the sheriffs and custom-house officials who had collected the illegal taxes. The Scots, whose military operations had made these procedings of the English Parliament possible, were declared to have been "ever good subjects"; and a gift of sixty thousand pounds, in addition to their

pay, was voted to them for their brotherly aid to the friends of liberty in England. Perceiving the storm that was arising against them, the Episcopal bishops voluntarily relinquished their seats in the House of Lords, to avoid the expulsion which the popular party resolutely and inexorably demanded.

Serious Rebellion in Ireland.

In the meantime, during this memorable year 1641, a dangerous rebellion broke out in Ireland, as a result of the tyranny inaugurated by the Earl of Strafford as Lord Lieutenant of Ireland in 1633. This tyranny had lasted seven years, and the Irish took advantage of that statesman's execution in 1641 to assert their freedom by a rising to overthrow English authority in the Emerald Isle. Religious zeal added bitterness to political animosity.

Roger O'Moore and His Plans.

The plan for a general Irish revolt was inaugurated by Roger O'Moore, who had served in the Spanish army, and who was full of zeal for the Roman Catholic Church. He imagined that, by a sudden rising of the Catholic Irish, all the English and Scotch Protestant settlers in Ireland might be massacred or driven from Irish soil, and the independence of Erin restored. As a part of his plan was the entire restoration of the Catholic religion in Ireland, he counted upon the aid of the Catholic lords of the English Pale, most of whom joined in the plot and concerted measures with O'Moore and Phelim O'Neill, the most powerful native Irish chief.

First Outbreaks.

The insurrection was to break out in all parts of Ireland on the same day, when the forts were to be seized by the Irish rebels upon a given signal. The secret had been well kept until the night before the execution of the conspiracy, when it was betrayed by an Irishman named Conolly, who informed the English authorities of the intended attack upon Dublin Castle, in which a large quantity of arms and ammunition were stored. Several of the conspirators were instantly arrested, but it was too late to check the progress of the revolt, which burst forth with tremendous fury, October 23, 1641.

Massacre in Ulster.

The English and Scotch colonists of Ulster, who were totally unaware of the existence of such a dreadful conspiracy, suddenly found themselves surrounded by mobs of infuriated Irishmen armed with staves, pitchforks and other rude weapons, which they brandished aloft with the most frightful yells. One of the most barbarous and brutal massacres recorded in all history ensued, sparing no age, sex or condition.

The Victims.

Without provocation and without resistance, the defenseless English and Scotch settlers, being Protestants, were murdered in cold blood by their nearest Irish neighbors, with whom they had long maintained a continued intercourse of kindness and good offices. The houses of these settlers were set on fire or leveled with the ground. Where the

unfortunate owners endeavored to defend themselves, their wives and their children they all perished together in the flames.

**Bigotry of the Assassins.**

In the midst of these atrocities, the sacred name of religion resounded on every side, not to stay the hands of the assassins, but to enforce their blows and to harden their hearts against every movement of human sympathy. The English and Scotch settlers, as heretics, abhorred of God and detested by all good Catholics, were marked by the Irish priests for slaughter.

**Spread of the Rebellion.**

The flames of rebellion spread from Ulster to every part of Ireland. In the provinces of Leinster, Munster and Connaught the English and Scotch who were not massacred were driven from their homes, robbed of all their clothes, and left exposed naked and defenseless to perish by the winter frosts and storms.

**Refugees in Dublin.**

Only Dublin remained to the English, and the failure of the plot there preserved in Ireland the remains of the English name. The roads were crowded with multitudes of wretched refugees hastening to that city; and when the gates were opened these fugitives presented to the view of the astonished inhabitants a scene of misery which words fail to describe.

**Desolation of Ireland.**

The number of English and Scotch Protestants who thus fell victims to Irish Catholic bigotry has been estimated at from forty thousand to two hundred thousand. The war which followed this rebellion continued ten years, and reduced Ireland to extreme poverty and misery. Portions of the unhappy country that escaped the ravages of fire and sword were desolated by famine and pestilence. The plague ravaged Ireland more or less during the whole of this unhappy period, and was supposed to have been caused by the unwholesome food which the people were obliged to eat.

**Parliament's Accusation.**

Parliament accused the court, and particularly the queen, of instigating the Irish rebellion and the massacre, and declared that the Catholic and Episcopal bishops and the court had entered into a plot for the destruction of religious liberty in England. So thoroughly did Parliament distrust the king that it took upon its own hands the task of dealing with the Irish rebellion.

**The King's Decision.**

King Charles I., exasperated at the increasing demands of the Commons, perpetrated one rash act which hastened civil war. He had for some time looked on bitterly but helplessly while the absolutism in which he had sought to intrench himself was rudely swept away. Conscious that his throne was tottering to its fall, he endeavored by one bold stroke to crush all opposition to his will and to reëstablish his lost authority.

The king's blow was aimed directly at the House of Commons. The Commons had refused to surrender five of their boldest leaders—

Haslerig, Hollis, Hampden, Pym and Strode—at the king's demand; and the next day Charles I., with three hundred soldiers, went in person to the hall of the House of Commons to arrest these five leaders, January 5, 1642. Leaving the soldiers outside the chamber, the king entered the hall alone, all the members of the House rising to receive him. The Speaker vacated the chair, and the king occupied it. After seating himself he told the Commons that he was sorry for the occasion that had forced him thither; that he had come in person to sieze the five members whom he had accused of high treason, seeing that they would not deliver them to his sergeant-at-arms. He then looked over the hall to see if the accused were present; but they had escaped a few minutes before he had entered, and the king remarked: "I see my birds have flown." With the expectation that the Commons would send the accused members to him, and a threat to secure them for himself it they would not, the baffled king abruptly left the chamber.

**His Rash Blow at the House of Commons**

Thus disappointed, perplexed, and not knowing on whom to rely, the king next proceeded to the Common Council of the city of London, and made his complaints to that body. On his way thither he was greeted with cries of "Privilege! privilege!" from the angry populace. The Common Council answered his complaints only with a contemptuous silence; and, on his return, one of the populace, more insolent than the others, cried out: "To your tents, O Israel!" This was a watchword among the ancient Jews when they intended to abandon their kings.

**Charles I. and the Common Council of London.**

By his rash act Charles I. offered a flagrant insult to the House of Commons and violated a fundamental law of the realm. The crisis had now arrived. The occasion being too solemn for business, the House of Commons adjourned. The next day the king issued a proclamation branding the five accused members as traitors and ordering their arrest. London was in a tumult, and the city rose as one man for the defence of the accused. The citizens sheltered the accused members, and their train-bands held the city and guarded the House of Commons. These train-bands escorted the historical five back to their seats amid the cheers of the excited populace, the river and the streets by which they passed being guarded by cannon and men-at-arms.

**The Accused Members and the Citizens of London.**

After returning to Windsor, King Charles I. began to reflect on the rashness of his recent proceedings, and when too late he resolved to make some atonement. He accordingly apologized to Parliament in a humiliating message, in which he informed the Commons that he desisted from his recent violent proceedings against the accused members, and assured them that upon all occasions he would be as careful of their privileges as of his crown or his life. Thus, while the king's

**The King's Humiliating Apology.**

former violence had rendered him hateful to the Commons, his present submission rendered him contemptible.

Encroachments of the Commons.

From this time Parliament encroached more and more on the royal prerogative, until scarcely a vestige of monarchical power remained. The Commons now demanded that the appointment of Ministers of State and of military and naval commanders should depend upon their approval. The Commons also required that the Tower of London, several of the sea-ports and the management of the navy should also be given into their possession. When Parliament demanded that the king should relinquish the command of the army for a certain period His Majesty angrily replied: "No, not for one hour!" This refusal dispelled all hopes for a peaceful settlement of difficulties, and both parties resolved upon an appeal to arms.

## SECTION II.—CIVIL WAR AND FALL OF MONARCHY (A. D. 1642–1649).

Beginning of the Civil War.

The breach between King Charles I. and Parliament continually widened; and in the summer of 1642 the king withdrew from London, retiring to York, where he declared war against Parliament. On the 25th of August, 1642, Charles erected the royal standard at Nottingham, but it was soon blown down by the violence of the wind. For the next six years English soil was reddened with English blood shed in civil war. Englishmen fought against Englishmen to decide the momentous issue of constitutional liberty against royal prerogative—the question of the inalienable rights of the English people against the "divine right of kings," thus forced upon them by the arbitrary action of the royal House of Stuart.

Cavaliers and Roundheads.

On the side of the king were the nobility and the gentry, the Roman Catholic and Episcopal clergy, and all the advocates of the Established Church and of absolute monarchy. The whole of the king's party were called *Cavaliers*. On the side of Parliament were the Puritans, all who advocated a reform in Church and State, and all believers in republican principles. All the adherents of Parliament received from their enemies the nickname of *Roundheads*, because their hair was cropped close to their heads. London and the other great cities of England were on the side of Parliament, excepting Oxford, which remained loyal to the king.

Independents and Presbyterians.

The opponents of the king were divided into several factions. The Independents, who were Puritans in religious belief and republicans in political faith, aimed at the overthrow of the monarchy; while the Presbyterians, or moderate party, merely wished to put an end to the abuses of the royal power, but not to deprive the king of his crown.

The two great parties which were now arrayed against each other in civil war—the one democratic, and the other aristocratic; the one striving for progress and reform, and the other adhering to the traditions of the past—have continued to struggle for supremacy to the present day, under the names of Whig and Tory, Liberal and Conservative. **The Two Great Parties.**

The royal and Parliamentary parties differed from each other almost as much in dress as in principles. The Cavalier costume consisted of a tunic of silk or satin with slashed sleeves; an elegant lace collar adorning the neck, and a short cloak hanging gracefully over one shoulder. Short full trowsers reached almost to the top of the wide boots, which extended half-way up the calf of the leg. The head was covered with a broad-brimmed beaver hat, adorned with an elegant band and a plume of feathers. The hair hung in curls over the shoulders, and the beard was trimmed to a point; while the *love-locks*, the tress on the left side, were tied up by a pretty colored ribbon. The love-locks were so obnoxious to the Puritans that John Pym wrote a quarto volume against them. The Puritan Roundheads wore a cloak of sad-colored brown or black, a plain linen collar laid carelessly down on the plaited cloth, and a hat with a high, steeple-shaped crown over their closely-clipped or thin, straight hair. **Costumes of the Rival Parties.**

The Cavaliers were as gay in their manners as in their dress, thus presenting a marked contrast to the gloomy fanaticism of the Roundheads. The rigid severity of the Puritans tolerated no recreations, except such as were afforded by the singing of hymns and Psalms. They looked upon theaters, dances and all other amusements as sinful frivolities. They regarded horse-racing and bear-baiting—popular diversions of that period—as wicked enormities. **Their Manners.**

The commanders of the king's armies were his nephew, Prince Rupert of the Palatinate, and the Marquis of Newcastle. Prince Rupert was the son of the king's sister Elizabeth and her husband, the unfortunate Elector-Palatine Frederick V., who had tried to become King of Bohemia, and whose action brought on the great Thirty Years' War in Germany. Prince Rupert was a brave soldier, but was too rash and impetuous to be a good general. **The Royal Commanders.** **Prince Rupert.**

The popular leaders on the Parliamentary side were John Hampden, John Pym and Sir Henry Vane, the last of whom had severel years before been Governor of the Puritan colony of Massachusetts Bay in New England. The chief commanders of the armies of Parliament were Sir Thomas Fairfax and the Earl of Essex, the latter of whom was the son of Queen Elizabeth's wayward favorite. As the struggle advanced, Oliver Cromwell became the rising star on the Parliamentary side, as we shall presently see. **The Parliamentary Leaders.**

The Parliamentary Armies.

At the beginning of the civil war Parliament appointed lieutenants for all the counties of England, and levied troops in the king's name for the defense of the kingdom against the king himself. The armies which Parliament had raised to crush the Catholic rebellion in Ireland were retained in England and placed under the command of the Earl of Essex. Citizens brought their plate, and women their ornaments, even their thimbles and wedding-rings, to be melted up in the service of the "good cause" against the "Malignants," as the Cavaliers were called by their Puritan foes. On the royal side the queen sailed for Holland to pawn the crown jewels for arms and ammunition.

First Two Years of the War.

While the king raised the royal standard at Nottingham, August 25, 1642, the Earl of Essex mustered the Parliamentary forces at Northampton. During the first two years of the war the king's forces were victorious in almost every encounter with the undisciplined troops in the service of Parliament; but as the latter gained skill and experience they became superior to any troops that the king could bring into the field.

Battle of Edge Hill.

The first great battle of the civil war was fought at Edge Hill, in Warwickshire, October 23, 1642, between the royal army under Prince Rupert and the Parliamentary forces under the Earl of Essex; about five thousand men being left dead on the field, and the battle being indecisive.

Campaign of 1643.

The campaign of 1643 was generally favorable to the royal cause. Early in the spring the Parliamentary forces under the Earl of Essex captured Reading, the capital of Berkshire; but about the same time the royal generals conquered Cornwall in the West and the four northern counties—Durham, Northumberland, Cumberland and Westmoreland.

Death of John Hampden.

On June 18, 1643, the Parliamentary party experienced a severe loss in the death of the brave, upright and illustrious John Hampden, who was killed in a skirmish with Prince Rupert at Chalgrove Field, in Oxfordshire.

Royalist Victories in 1643.

The king's forces were victorious at Stratton Hill, in Cornwall; at Atherton, in Yorkshire; at Lansdowne Hill, near Bath; and at Roundway Down, near Devizes, in Wiltshire. By the capture of the important city of Bristol, Prince Rupert became master of the West of England. The king besieged Gloucester, which was relieved by the Earl of Essex, September 5, 1643.

First Battle of Newbury and Death of Lord Falkland.

In the first battle of Newbury, in Berkshire, September 20, 1643, the royal army was repulsed, and the good Lucius Cary, Lord Falkland, was slain. He was a true patriot, and had opposed the tyrannical assumptions of King Charles I.; but when Parliament attempted to deprive the king of every vestige of power, and to overthrow the Established Church, he took sides with the king, hoping that Charles I. would

eventually concede the just demands of the English people. He therefore fought on the side of the king. On the morning of the fatal day he was heard to remark: "I am weary of the times, and foresee much misery to my country, but believe that I shall be out of it ere night."

**Irish Royalists and Scotch Covenanters.**

In 1644 the king secured the aid of some Irish Roman Catholics, but his plan to bring an Irish army into England to slaughter his English foes on their own soil was resented by his own English supporters, and large numbers of his officers of all grades resigned their commissions in the royal army and deserted to the Parliamentary side. In the same year Parliament secured the alliance of the Scots by entering into the *Solemn League and Covenant* with them, by which both parties bound themselves to strive for the extirpation of "popery and prelacy, superstition, heresy, schism and profaneness," and to uphold the rights of Parliament in proper regard to the royal authority .

**The King's Parliament.**

In the meantime the king called a Parliament of his own at Oxford, to oppose the designs of the Parliament at Westminster; but after this shadow of a Parliament had voted a grant of money to the king it was prorogued, and was never again convened.

**Oliver Cromwell and His Ironsides.**

Victory crowned the arms of Parliament after the sturdy Huntingdonshire Puritan, Oliver Cromwell, took the field in the cause of God and liberty, at the head of his invincible *Ironsides*—a body of pious cavalrymen, who spent their leisure in prayer, Psalm-singing and Bible-reading.

**Battle of Marston Moor.**

An army of Scotch Covenanters marched into England to assist the forces of Parliament, while King Charles I. called over his troops from Ireland. A large force of these royal troops were defeated and captured at Nantwich by Sir Thomas Fairfax, who afterward united with the Scots in laying siege to York. Prince Rupert advanced with the royal army to raise the siege; but he was overwhelmingly defeated at Marston Moor, about five miles from York, July 2, 1644, with the loss of all his artillery, Cromwell's Ironsides being chiefly instrumental in achieving the Parliamentary victory. This great defeat of the royal army was partly due to the impetuosity of Prince Rupert. The battle of Marston Moor gave the Parliamentary forces possession of the whole North of England.

**Royalist Refeat.**

**Second Battle of Newbury.**

The royalists defeated the Parliamentarians under Sir William Waller at Cropredy Bridge, in Oxfordshire; and in the second battle of Newbury, October 27, 1644, the king broke through the Parliamentary army under the Earl of Manchester and reached Oxford.

**Presbyterians and Independents.**

The Puritans now banished the Book of Common Prayer from religious worship, and substituted the Calvinistic form of worship and church government for the Episcopal. They also caused images and ornaments to be taken from the churches and forbade festivities. But

the Puritans were divided into two great parties—the Presbyterians and the Independents—between whom the greatest animosity already prevailed. The Presbyterians, or moderate Puritans, inclined toward the support of monarchical and aristocratic institutions, and longed for the establishment of their Church, to the exclusion of all others, and opposed toleration. The Independents, or radical Puritans, held democratic, or republican views in regard to civil government, and desired toleration for all Christian faiths.

**The Self-Denying Ordinance.**

Oliver Cromwell belonged to the Independents; while the Earl of Essex, who held the chief command of the Parliamentary forces, belonged to the Presbyterians. The Independents caused the enactment, by Parliament, of the *Self-denying Ordinance*, which allowed no member of Parliament to hold a command in the army. The Earl of Essex was therefore compelled to resign; and Sir Thomas Fairfax, an able general, was appointed to the chief command of the army of Parliament. Cromwell, who had been one of the most enthusiastic supporters of the Self-denying Ordinance, hastened to resign his command; but through the influence of Fairfax, who felt that Cromwell's services in the army were necessary to insure the overthrow of the royal party, the Parliament dispensed with the Self-denying Ordinance in Cromwell's case, and he was permitted to retain his position.

**The New Model.**

With the consent of Fairfax, the commander-in-chief of the Parliamentary forces, Cromwell now introduced the *New Model* of discipline into the Parliamentary army. His first aim was to collect a force of honest, self-respecting, God-fearing men; and another such an army probably never was seen. The soldiers spent their leisure hours in studying the Scriptures and in mutual exhortations to a godly life. Wherever they moved they respected very man's house and field, and honestly paid for all provisions.

**Royalist Ravages.**

The king's army, on the contrary, though superior at first in military discipline, was worse than swarms of grasshoppers to the districts which it visited. The wild young Cavaliers under the command of Prince Rupert had learned their occupation among the direful scenes of the Thirty Years' War in Germany, where the burning of villages and the devastation of harvest-fields were matters of daily occurrence. The citizen-soldiery of Parliament, called from their looms and desks, ere long acquired the necessary discipline; while the gallantry of the Cavaliers scarcely compensated the royal cause for their disgraceful misbehavior.

**Battle of Naseby.**

Some efforts at peace having failed, the civil war again burst forth with all its fury. The army of King Charles I. was completely overthrown and his cause was utterly ruined in the desperate battle of Naseby, in Northamptonshire, June 14, 1645. The Parliamentary

CHARLES I WITH HIS CHILDREN AT MAIDENHEAD

From the Painting by M. Adams

forces were commanded by Fairfax, Skippon, Cromwell and Ireton; and the royalists by the king, Prince Rupert, Lord Astley and Sir Marmaduke Langdale. The defeat of the royal army was caused, in a great measure, by the rashness and impatience of Prince Rupert, who overruled the more prudent judgment of the king. Rupert, with the right wing of the royal cavalry, dashed with the most fiery impetuosity upon the Parliamentary left wing, commanded by General Ireton, Cromwell's son-in-law. At the same time Cromwell, with the Parliamentary right wing, assailed the royal left wing; while the centers of the two armies, led respectively by Fairfax and the king, were struggling desperately. The Parliamentary left was thoroughly annihilated, and Ireton was made a prisoner; but Rupert lost precious time in an unnecessary pursuit of Ireton's broken forces, when he should have gone to the aid of the king. In the meantime Cromwell with his Ironsides defeated the royal cavalry, after which he flew to the aid of the Parliamentary center, which was beginning to give way before the royalists. Cromwell and his Ironsides, who insured victory wherever they appeared, soon put the king's infantry to a total rout; and Charles I., seeing that the day was lost to his cause, retired with his shattered forces, leaving the field, all his baggage and cannon and five thousand prisoners in the hands of the victorious Parliamentarians.

**Ruin of the Royal Cause.**

Among the king's captured baggage were found papers revealing his plot with the Irish Catholic rebels, conceding all their wild demands on condition of their aid to the royal cause against the forces of the English Parliament.

**Papers Captured.**

By their victory at Naseby the Parliamentarians obtained possession of all the strong cities in the kingdom, such as Bristol, Bridgewater, Bath and Chester. Exeter was besieged and taken by Fairfax, whereupon the king and his broken hosts retreated to Oxford, which Fairfax and Cromwell were preparing to besiege. Rather than be taken prisoner by his enemies, and hoping to find respect and kind treatment among his Scotch subjects, Charles I. went into the camp of the Scots at Newark, May 5, 1646; but, instead of treating him as their king, the Scots placed a guard around him and kept him as a prisoner. The fanatical Scotch preachers, unable to restrain their zeal, insulted him to his face, and, in sermons preached in his presence, bitterly reproached him as a wicked tyrant.

**King Charles I. a Prisoner to the Scots.**

One of these fanatical Scotch preachers ordered the fifty-second Psalm to be sung:

**The King and the Scotch Preachers.**

> "Why dost thou, tyrant, boast thyself.
> Thy wicked deeds to praise?"

Whereupon the king stood up, and, with a dignity and meekness that

affected even the rigid enthusiasts, called for the fifty-sixth Psalm, which was sung accordingly:

"Have mercy, Lord, on me, I pray,
For men would me devour!"

**The War in Scotland.** In Scotland in the meantime the Marquis of Montrose had deserted the Covenanters and raised an army of Irish and Highlanders, with which he defeated the Covenanters at Tibbermuir, near Perth, in 1644; at Alford, in Aberdeenshire, in 1645; and at Kilsyth, in Stirlingshire, in 1645. But he was utterly defeated at Philiphaugh, near Selkirk, by the Covenanters under General Leslie, September 15, 1645.

**The Marquis of Worcester.** The captive king was now obliged to issue orders for all his troops to submit to the triumphant Parliament. The venerable Marquis of Worcester, then over eighty-four years of age, held out in Rayland Castle until reduced to the greatest extremity, and was the last man in England to lay down his arms.

**Colonel Sir Henry Washington.** Colonel Sir Henry Washington, an ancestor of General George Washington, fought on the king's side, leading a storming party at Bristol, and defending Worcester against the Parliamentary forces in 1646.

**Presbyterians and Independents.** Although the Great Civil War was now vitually over, religious dissensions raged with the greatest fury. As we have already seen, the king's enemies were divided into the Presbyterian and Independent parties. The most inveterate animosity now existed between these two factions. The Presbyterians had a majority in Parliament, while the Independents had a majority in the army. The Presbyterian majority in Parliament proceeded to reorganize the Church of England on the Presbyterian plan, while the Independents contended for religious freedom and a separation of Church and State.

**Presbyterian Intolerance.** The perils that had menaced civil liberty in England had passed away when the king surrendered to Lord Leven, the Scottish commander at Newark; but the religious intolerance to which the Presbyterian majority in Parliament still clung became well-nigh as dangerous to the state as the absolutism which had gone down in blood on the field of Naseby. The Presbyterians had abolished the civil despotism, only to impose a religious tyranny upon the English nation.

**Negotiations with the King.** The Presbyterian and Independent parties each sought reconciliation and alliance with King Charles I., with the view of advancing its own success; the Independents on the basis of religious toleration, and the Presbyterians on the adoption of the Scotch Covenant. The royal captive rejected the offers of both parties, because he hoped to induce one or the other to accept his own terms. He wrote: "I am not without hope that I shall be able to draw either the Presbyterians or the Independents to side with me for extirpating one another, so that I

shall be really king again." A Presbyterian asked: "What will become of us, now that the king has rejected our proposals?" An Independent replied: "What would have become of us had he accepted them?"

**The King and the Scots.**

The king believed that he had freed himself from the hostility of the Scots by conceding all their demands, and that he might count more on the affection and good will of the subjects among whom he had been born than of the new people among whom his father had come as a foreigner; but he still refused to sign the Covenant or to accept the terms which the English Parliament offered him. The Scots, the royalist officers and even the queen urged him with tears to provide for his safety in this way.

**The King in the Power of the Parliament.**

When the English Parliament was informed that the king was in the hands of the Scots it began to negotiate with them for the possession of his person. As he obstinately refused to sign the Covenant, the Scots finally surrendered him into the hands of commissioners appointed by the English Parliament, upon receiving four hundred thousand pounds sterling, the amount due them as pay, February, 1647. The captive king selected two of the commissioners, Mr. Herbert and Mr. Harrington, to attend him, in place of his own servants, who had been dismissed. The Scots were ever afterward ashamed of the reproach of having sold their sovereign to his inveterate foes.

**Parliament and the Army.**

The Presbyterians, thinking that their victory was now assured, assumed a more decided stand by establishing presbyteries throughout England, and voting to disband the old Parliamentary army, which was Independent, and to organize a new one with Presbyterians at its head; but the officers and troops of the old army, instigated by Oliver Cromwell, the leader of the Independents, refused to disband without an assurance of religious toleration, or until its work was completed and English freedom established on a secure basis.

**Parliament's Bloody Statute.**

Parliament was then more dangerous than the king, as it enacted a law in its sectarian zeal more ferocious than even the persecuting statutes of Henry VIII. or "Bloody Mary." By this terrible statute the death penalty was fixed upon all who should deny the doctrine of the Trinity, or Christ's divinity, or the inspiration of the Scriptures, or the resurrection of the body; while persons who believed that "man by nature hath free will to turn to God," or who denied the lawfulness of "Church government by Presbytery," were to be punished with imprisonment. Though this terrible statute was never enforced, its enactment showed the danger and justified extraordinary means of resistance.

The triumph of Parliament under its Presbyterian majority was of short duration; as a body of troopers under an officer named Joyce,

**The King in the Power of the Army.**

secretly sent for that purpose by Cromwell, surrounded Holmby House, in which the king was detained under the charge of the commissioners of Parliament, and placed him in the custody of the army, June, 1647. Parliament openly charged Cromwell with inciting the act, and Cromwell did not deny the charge, but marched to London and subjected the city and Parliament to his authority.

**Cromwell and the King.**

Cromwell now reinstated the captive king at Hampton Court, where he lived with dignity and with every appearance of personal freedom, though under guard. Cromwell and his son-in-law, General Ireton, desired to spare the king's life, and entered into negotiations with the royal captive; but they discovered, as Parliament had before discovered, that the king's word and promises meant nothing. With his characteristic insincerity, Charles I. intended to violate his plighted word and to deceive the victorious party in whose mercy he was. Had he possessed the least sincerity he might have saved his life and his throne, but his treachery to both Presbyterians and Independents sealed his fate.

**The Queen's Letter to the King.**

The queen wrote a letter to her royal husband, reproaching him for having made too great concessions to "those villains." These concessions were mainly that Cromwell should be Lord Lieutenant of Ireland for life; that an army should be kept in that island under the command of Cromwell himself, and that Cromwell should be honored with a garter. The queen's letter was intercepted, and was then forwarded to the captive king.

**The King's Reply and Its Contents.**

Cromwell and Irton, disguised as troopers, found the king's letter in answer to the queen's in the possession of the messenger at the Blue Boar Inn in Holborn. In his letter the king told his wife that she should leave him to manage matters, as he was better informed of all the circumstances than she could possibly be; but that she might be entirely easy in regard to all the concessions that he should make to "those villains"; as he should know in due time how to deal with "the rogue," who, instead of a garter, should be fitted with a hempen cord. This letter sealed the king's fate. Cromwell thus discovered that he was dealing with one who would violate every pledge that he had made as soon as he was reinstated on his throne, and would make a jest of putting a halter around his neck as the practical fulfillment of his promise of the garter.

**His Escape to the Isle of Wight.**

In November, 1647, the captive king, eluding his guards, escaped to the Isle of Wight, whose governor, Colonel Hammand, conducted him to Carisbrook Castle, where he was detained as a prisoner, though treated with every mark of respect, as before; but when the royal captive attempted to escape from Carisbrook Castle he was deprived of communication with his friends, and even of the attendance of his servants.

Revolt of Scotch Covenanters Subdued by Cromwell.

The captive Charles I. was still stirring up war between his English and Scotch kingdoms by secret agents, while royalist outbreaks convulsed every portion of England. The Scottish Covenanters, ashamed of the reproach of having sold their sovereign, sent an army under the Duke of Hamilton into England, in 1648. But Cromwell routed the invading army of Scots at Preston, in Lancashire, with terrific slaughter, August 18, 1648; after which he pushed across the border into Scotland, and reinstated the Marquis of Argyle in power at Edinburgh. In the meantime General Sir Thomas Fairfax had quelled the royalist risings in Kent and Essex.

Cromwell's Seizure of the King.

In September, 1648, Parliament entered into negotiations with the captive king, and the commissioners of Parliament were moved to tears at sight of the change that had taken place in the king's aspect and at beholding his "gray and discrowned head." Cromwell, after subduing the Scots, returned to England and hastened to London; and a body of troopers secretly sent by him again seized the king and confined him in Hurst Castle, on the coast of Hampshire, opposite the Isle of Wight, to the utmost consternation of the Presbyterian majority in Parliament, December 5, 1648.

Colonel Pride's Purge.

The following day Parliament accepted the king's concessions as a "sufficient foundation for a treaty of peace." The next day Cromwell, anticipating the design of Parliament to destroy him, and resolving to annihilate their power by a decisive blow, a *coup d' état*, caused Colonel Pride with two regiments to surround the Parliament House and to exclude all the Presbyterian members from their seats, thus leaving sixty Independents as the only members of Parliament, which was thereafter known as the "Rump Parliament." By this arbitrary proceeding—known as *Colonel Pride's Purge*—Cromwell and the army, at the head of the Independent party, triumphed over the Presbyterian majority in the Long Parliament, December 7, 1648.

The "Rump Parliament" and "Charles Stuart."

The "Rump Parliament" passed an act declaring it high treason for a king to levy war against the people's representatives; and declared also that "the people are, under God, the origin of all just power," and that "the Commons of England in Parliament assembled, being chosen by and representing the people, are the supreme authority of the nation." The "Rump Parliament" also, by a unanimous vote, impeached "Charles Stuart" in the name of the people of England, and resolved to bring him to trial for "the treason, blood and mischief he was guilty of."

The King Brought to London.

Colonel Harrison, the son of a butcher, was sent to bring the king from Hurst Castle to Windsor, and thence to London, where he was confined in St. James's Palace. The people were greatly affected at the sight of the change in his appearance, and he stood a lonely figure of

Disrespect Shown Him.

majesty in distress, which even his adversaries could not behold without reverence and compassion. He had long been attended only by an old, decrepid servant, Sir Philip Warwick, who could only deplore his master's fate, without being able to avenge him. Charles I. was now treated with more severity. His guards and attendants were ordered to treat him no longer as if he were a sovereign, and to call him simply "Charles Stuart." His own servants were not permitted to wait on him at table; and common soldiers, attired in armor, were appointed to bring his meals to him. The fallen king was shocked much by this disrespect, but soon recovered his composure, and said: "Nothing is so contemptible as a despised king."

The King and the Duke of Hamilton.

The Duke of Hamilton, the leader of the Scotch Covenanters, was reserved for the same punishment as King Charles I., and upon leaving Windsor threw himself at the king's feet, exclaiming: "My dear master!" The unhappy king raised him up, embraced him tenderly and replied, while tears ran down his cheeks: "I have indeed been a dear master to you." These were severe distresses, but Charles I. never could persuade himself that his subjects would accuse him and try him as a criminal—an indignity to which royalty had not until then been subjected; but expected every moment to fall a victim to private assassination.

High Court of Justice.

On January 20, 1649, a *High Court of Justice*—consisting of one hundred and thirty-three members, and presided over by John Bradshaw, an eminent lawyer—assembled in Westminster Hall to try the king. Never was there a more august assemblage in that historic old edifice. The counsel for the Commons opened the case by stating that "Charles Stuart, being admitted King of England and intrusted with a limited power, yet, from a wicked design to erect an unlimited and tyrannical government, has traitorously and maliciously levied war against the present Parliament and the people whom they represent, and is therefore impeached as a tyrant, traitor, murderer and a public and implacable enemy to the Commonwealth."

Impeachment of Charles I.

Conduct of Lady Fairfax.

When, during the calling of the roll of the members of the court, the name of General Sir Thomas Fairfax was mentioned, a voice cried out from among the spectators: "He has more wit than to be here!" When the article of impeachment was read, declaring that the king was accused in the name of the people of England, the same voice replied: "Not a tenth part of them!" The soldiers were ordered to fire at the spot whence the voice had proceeded; but when it was discovered that the voice was that of Lady Fairfax, they, in consideration of her sex and rank, did not fire. Lady Fairfax had been an ardent politician, and had urged her husband to oppose the king on the battlefield; but now, perceiving that the struggle was likely to end in the sacrifice of the

king and in the exaltation of Oliver Cromwell, both she and her husband heartily repented of the part they had taken against their sovereign.

**Trial and Conviction of Charles I.**

Charles I. appeared more majestic in this hour of peril than he had ever appeared in the days of his power and prosperity. He replied with dignity, but with mildness. As the "Lord's Anointed," he persistently denied the jurisdiction of the court, claimed himself to be beyond the power of all courts and all Parliaments, and obstinately reasserted that his kingly rights were derived from the "Supreme Majesty of Heaven." There is no doubt that Charles I. firmly and sincerely believed what he asserted, and that he thought he was only guarding a sacred trust which God had conferred upon him, contrary as this theory was to the entire spirit of the English Constitution, as well as destructive to the safety and just rights of the English people. Thirty-two witnesses were examined; and, on January 27, 1649, after a trial of seven days, the royal prisoner was declared guilty and was condemned to death as "a tyrant, traitor, murderer and public enemy." The death-warrant was signed two days later, and the king was ordered to prepare for death the next day.

**Fruitless Efforts to Save Him.**

The Scots protested against this trial of their hereditary sovereign; the French and Dutch ambassadors at London interceded in the king's behalf; and the Prince of Wales sent a blank sheet of paper, with his name and seal affixed, upon which Parliament might write any terms it chose as the price of sparing his father's life. But all was in vain, as the Commons were inexorable.

**He Is Insulted by the Soldiers.**

On his way through the hall, upon entering and leaving the court-room, during the sessions of the trial, the fallen king was insulted by the soldiery and the mob, who cried out: "Justice! justice! execution! execution!" Upon one of these occasions, one more rude than his companions even went so far as to spit in the king's face. The king bore all their insolence with patience, saying: "Poor souls, they would treat their generals the same way for a sixpence." Some of the populace expressed their sorrow in sighs and tears. One soldier, more compassionate than his fellows, uttered a blessing in the king's behalf; whereupon an officer struck the soldier to the ground. The king, observing this affair, said: "The punishment, methinks, exceeds the offense."

**His Sad Farewell to His Family.**

On the day preceding the execution, Charles I. was permitted to see his son Henry and his daughter Elizabeth. His other two sons, Charles and James, were in Holland; and his other daughter, Henrietta, was in France. Henry was only seven years old. His father said to this little boy as he sat upon his knee: "Mark, my child, what I say. They will cut off my head, and will want, perhaps, to make thee king;

but thou must not be king so long as thy brothers Charles and James are alive. Therefore, I charge thee, do not be made a king by them." The child, in his innocence, looked earnestly into his father's face, and exclaimed: "I will be torn in pieces first!" This answer made the king shed tears.

**Execution of Charles I.**

King Charles I. was taken to the place of execution, in front of the palace of Whitehall, January 30, 1649. He ascended the scaffold with a firm step; and in his last moments he reasserted his "divine rights," and declared that "the people have no right to any part in the government, that being a thing nothing pertaining to them." Addressing those around him, he declared himself innocent toward his people and forgave his enemies. Turning to Bishop Juxon, he said: "I go from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown, where no disturbance can take place." The bishop replied: "You exchange a temporal for an eternal crown; a good exchange." The king then laid his head upon the block, saying to Bishop Juxon: "Remember." One of the executioners then cut off the king's "gray and discrowned head"; and the other, holding it aloft, exclaimed: "This is the head of a traitor!" Many of the spectators wept at the horrid spectacle, and a groan of pity and horror proceeded from the vast multitude.

**"Day of King Charles the Martyr."**

The execution of Charles I. aroused horror and indignation throughout Europe, and the English ambassadors in the different European capitals were driven away or murdered. From 1660 to 1859 the 30th of January was commemorated annually as the "Day of King Charles the Martyr," by special services in the Church of England, and by solemn mourning on the part of the English royal family.

**Remark on the Execution.**

Charles I. was the only King of England who was condemned to death and executed under the sentence of the law. This was not a time for calm measures, when England was in the throes of a great political revolution. The proper course would have been to depose the king, as he had violated his coronation oath. Charles I. fell a victim to the spirit of the age, which he persisted obstinately in refusing to understand.

## SECTION III.—THE COMMONWEALTH AND THE PROTECTORATE (A. D. 1649–1660).

**Abolition of Monarchy.**

A few days after the execution of Charles I., the monarchy and the House of Lords were abolished by the Commons; and the "Rump Parliament," upheld by Oliver Cromwell and the army, governed the country. The new republic was styled *The Commonwealth of England.* The Commons declared it high treason to acknowledge the Prince of

**Commonwealth of England.**

Wales King of England, and ordered a new Great Seal to be engraved with the legend: "The first year of freedom by God's blessing restored, 1648." In the year 1633 an equestrian statue of brass had been erected in honor of Charles I. Parliament now ordered this, the first equestrian statue in England, to be broken in pieces and sold for old brass.

King's Statue Destroyed.

The execution of Charles I. involved Parliament in a new and greater difficulty, and perils gathered thick and fast around the new Republic of England. The Dutch Republic hastened to recognize Prince Charles, who was then living in exile at The Hague, as King of England. At home the royalists, who had been beaten into silence, looked with deadly hatred and indescribable disgust upon the Puritan Republic, and only waited for a favorable opportunity to make an effort to restore the fallen monarchy. But the first attempts at a royalist rising were sternly crushed by Cromwell's iron hand. A most menacing spirit had begun to infect the army, which would have caused the wildest excesses if not checked. An extreme faction of the army, called *Levelers*, because they held the socialistic doctrine that all men should be "leveled" to an equality in rank and property, broke out into open mutiny; but this outbreak was sternly quelled by Cromwell's vigorous hand.

The Puritan Republic of England and Its Difficulties.

Royalist Hostility.

The Levelers.

The royalists in England, Scotland and Ireland considered Prince Charles his father's legitimate successor. Though no formidable royalist rising was undertaken in England for the time, the royalists in Ireland raised the standard of the Stuarts; while the Covenanters of Scotland, who had bound themselves to the support of monarchy, also proclaimed Prince Charles in their country. These Irish and Scotch rebellions against the English Commonwealth demanded very prompt action on the part of the republican Parliament and its great general. The strength of the Puritan Independents was in their army of fifty thousand men, and in the iron will of Oliver Cromwell, who was now appointed Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

Prince Charles and the Irish Royalists and the Scotch Covenanters.

The royalist rebels in Ireland, under the direction of the Marquis of Ormond, speedily took every town except Dublin. Cromwell crossed over into that island with twelve thousand troops, fully resolved to stamp out every vestige of rebellion and to establish fully the authority of the English Commonwealth. His campaign was short but terrible, and it resulted in the first thorough English conquest of the Emerald Isle. He began his Irish campaign by taking Drogheda by storm, and massacred its garrison of three thousand men, in stern retaliation for the massacre of the English and Scotch Protestant settlers in Ireland in 1641. Wexford was also taken by storm and its garrison put to the sword. Terrified by this severity, town after town opened its gates to Crom-

Cromwell's Conquest of Ireland.

Reduction and Massacres of Drogheda and Wexford.

well, or fell before his assaults if it offered any resistance. The memory of Ulster nerved every arm and hardened every heart in Cromwell's army for the dreadful work of vengeance, and every Irish royalist taken with arms in his hand was put to death.

**Irish Migrations.**

At the end of a campaign of nine months, in 1649 and 1650, Cromwell had so completely subdued Ireland that he was able to return to England to take the field against the Scotch Covenanters, leaving his son-in-law, General Ireton, in command in Ireland. Under the sway of the English Commonwealth, all the discontented and conquered Irish chiefs that desired to do so were allowed to leave their country and to enter the service of foreign monarchs. Accordingly the Marquis of Ormond and more than forty thousand Irish royalists enlisted in the armies of France, Spain and Austria. Large numbers of the vanquished Irish were shipped to the Barbadoes; and many of the Irish landholders who had borne arms against the English Parliament were removed to lands assigned to them in the province of Connaught and in County Clare; while Parliamentary soldiers and many other English colonists were settled in the provinces of Ulster, Munster and Leinster. As the most troublesome elements of the native population were thus drawn off, Ireland enjoyed such tranquillity as she had not experienced for centuries, but the country became a land of beggars.

**English Colonists in Ireland.**

**Overthrow and Execution of the Marquis of Montrose.**

In Scotland, in the meantime, the brave and loyal Lord Marquis of Montrose had roused the Highlanders in favor of Prince Charles; but he was defeated and betrayed into the power of the Covenanters, who took him to Edinburgh and hanged him without a trial. Prince Charles disavowed the enterprise of the Marquis of Montrose after being informed of its failure, though it had been undertaken with his approval and also with his promise of support.

**Prince Charles in Scotland.**

The Scots allowed Prince Charles to land in their country and agreed to acknowledge him as King Charles II. only on condition that he should sign the Covenant, enter the Presbyterian Church and accept a limited royal prerogative. After some hesitation, the prince agreed to these terms, left Holland and made his appearance in Scotland. The daily and hourly sermons and exhortations to which he was subjected by the zealous Scots appeared to the gay young prince to be a dear price to pay for his comfortless crown. He was obliged to issue a proclamation declaring himself humbled in spirit and afflicted for his father's tyranny and for his mother's idolatry. But with all this, none trusted him, so that he was only a nominal king, while the Scottish Parliament continued to exercise all the real power in that country.

**Cromwell Sent against the Scots.**

Cromwell, who had received the thanks of Parliament after reducing Ireland to submission, and who had been created Captain-General of all the troops in England, was sent to subdue the Scots also; and he at

once invaded Scotland with a large army. At the head of sixteen thousand troops, Cromwell marched against the Scotch Covenanters, but many of his troops died from hunger and sickness on the way. At Dunbar, Cromwell, with only twelve thousand men, was opposed by twenty-seven thousand Scotch Covenanters, who considered victory certain. The Scotch preachers endeavored to prove from the Old Testament that the Covenanters would conquer, and urged an attack upon Cromwell's army. When Cromwell saw the Scots advancing, he exclaimed: "The Lord has delivered them into our hand!" A furious battle ensued on September 3, 1650, and Cromwell gained a glorious victory. The Scotch troops threw down their arms and fled in every direction, after losing four thousand killed and wounded and ten thousand prisoners.

**Battle of Dunbar.**

While Cromwell was still in Scotland, Prince Charles, with a body of Scotch troops, marched into England, and was joined by a considerable number of English royalists. Cromwell at length advanced against the prince; and on September 3, 1651, exactly one year after the battle of Dunbar, was fought the battle of Worcester, in which Cromwell gained another brilliant victory. The royal army was hopelessly annihilated. Prince Charles fled from the field and became a fugitive.

**Prince Charles in England.**

**Battle of Worcester.**

Thus left alone in the very heart of England, with Cromwell's troopers occupying every road and scouring the country in search of the fugitive prince, Charles was in a most perilous situation. For six weeks he wandered in various disguises and through innumerable dangers, hiding by day and journeying by night. At one time, while concealed in the thick branches of an oak, he saw and heard his pursuers pass beneath him. A large reward was offered to any one who would betray the prince, and those who concealed him were threatened with death; but forty men and women, chiefly poor laborers, at different times concealed him. Finally he reached Shoreham, on the southern coast of England, where he embarked for France, in which country he arrived safely and became a pensioner of his young cousin, King Louis XIV.

**Adventures and Escape of Prince Charles.**

General Monk, whom Cromwell had left in command in Scotland, subdued that kingdom in a campaign as terribly severe as that of Cromwell in Ireland. The inhabitants of Dundee were massacred; and Aberdeen and many other towns and fortresses of Scotland surrendered to the forces of the English Commonwealth.

**Conquest of Scotland by General Monk.**

General Ireton, Cromwell's son-in-law, completed the conquest of Ireland, but died at Limerick, and was succeeded in his command by General Ludlow. The Puritan colonies in New England rejoiced in the triumph of their party in the Mother Country, and the other English colonies in North America were forced to acknowledge the Commonwealth.

**The English Colonies in North America.**

Power of the English Commonwealth.

After a half century of humiliation under the first two Stuarts, England now had a government that could command order at home and respect abroad, as in the "golden days of Good Queen Bess." For the first time in English history the war-making power was in the same hands as the purse-strings; and the abolition of rank and titles opened a freer career to all talents and energies, so that men who in previous times might have lived and died in obscurity now rose to high commands. Among these was Admiral Blake, whose brilliant achievements gave the English navy a renown which it had never before possessed.

Admiral Blake's Cruises.

Prince Rupert was at this time cruising in the Atlantic. Admiral Blake forced him to seek shelter in the Tagus; and when King John IV. of Portugal refused to admit Blake's pursuing fleet Blake took revenge by seizing twenty richly-laden vessels belonging to the Portuguese king, who was allowed to renew his alliance with England only by making the most humble apology and submission.

Navigation Act.

The neighboring Republic of Holland was the next to feel the power of the English Commonwealth. The passage of the celebrated *Navigation Act* by the English Parliament, October 9, 1651, prohibiting foreigners from bringing into England in their own ships anything but their own productions, operated injuriously to the Dutch, whose country was small, but whose merchant fleet was the largest in the world, and who subsisted largely by the carrying trade between foreign ports. The final result of this arbitrary measure was a fierce and bloody naval war between the Republics of England and Holland.

England's First Naval War with the Dutch Republic.

The English required the ships of other nations to lower their flags in British waters. The English fleet under Admiral Blake met the Dutch fleet under Van Tromp in the Downs. Blake fired three guns as a signal for the Dutch admiral to salute the English fleet by lowering his flag; but, instead of giving this customary salute, Van Tromp answered Blake's signal with a broadside. The fight that ensued between the two fleets led to a declaration of war against the Dutch Republic by the English Commonwealth in May, 1652.

Blake's Defeat by Van Tromp.

In this naval war between the two republics twelve great battles and many smaller encounters ensued between their respective fleets. In an obstinate battle off the Goodwin Sands, near Dover, November 29, 1652, Blake was defeated and wounded with the loss of five ships taken or destroyed, and was obliged to seek shelter in the Thames. After gaining this victory, the Dutch admiral Van Tromp sailed up and down the English Channel with a broom at his masthead, to signify his intention of sweeping the English from the seas.

A desperate battle of three days occurred in the English Channel, off Portland, in February, 1653, between the English fleet of eighty vessels under Admiral Blake and General Monk and the Dutch fleet of seventy-

six vessels under the great admirals Van Tromp and De Ruyter; ending in an English victory, the Dutch being crippled so thoroughly that the English were for several months undisputed masters of the seas. In June of the same year (1653) the Dutch fleet under Van Tromp was defeated off the North Foreland by the English fleet under Admiral Blake; and in July following (1653) Van Tromp was defeated and killed in a battle off the Texel with the English fleet under General Monk, who proved to be as good a commander on sea as on land. These three great English naval victories impoverished the Dutch Republic and made the English Commonwealth mistress of the Channel and the neighboring seas.

**Blake's Three Great Victories over Van Tromp and De Ruyter.**

In the meantime, while the war with Holland was raging, a quarrel had risen between Oliver Cromwell and the Long Parliament. This Parliament had now lasted thirteen years, during the last four of which it was but the fragment of a Parliament under the designation of the "Rump Parliament." This Parliament had ceased to represent the wishes of the English people, and all parties considered its longer continuance to be impolitic, but there was no power with the legal right to dissolve it.

**Cromwell's Rupture with the "Rump Parliament."**

The odium attached to the "Rump Parliament" was increased by charges of corruption against its members in the appropriation of the public spoils. It had been hated by all denominations but its own from the very outset, and was fast becoming detested by its own sect and party. Cromwell became impatient at the selfishness and uncertainty that characterized the action of the "Rump Parliament," and urged a prompt "settlement of the nation" and an early dissolution. Parliament retaliated by a resolution to disband the army, but failed in the accomplishment of that purpose.

**Progress of the Quarrel.**

Finally there was an understanding that Parliament should soon dissolve and that the army should be disbanded, but Parliament soon manifested an inclination not to dissolve at all. In April, 1653, a proposition was made to call a new Parliament, in which all the members of the "Rump Parliament" should continue to hold seats, and also act as judges of the election of the new members. As a member of Parliament, Cromwell opposed this scheme.

**Final Understanding and Parliament's Inclination.**

A mutual council held at the palace of Whitehall adjourned for one day with the understanding that no action be taken in the meantime. At the time appointed for the second meeting of the council almost all of the friends of the measure and all of its leaders were absent. A messenger soon made his appearance at Whitehall, bringing the announcement that the measure was under discussion in Parliament, and that Sir Henry Vane was fast pressing the bill to a final passage. Cromwell angrily exclaimed: "It is contrary to common honesty!"

**Parliament's Action and Cromwell's Decision.**

He no longer hesitated; but, as he was secure in the attachment of the army, he resolved upon a decisive blow, a *coup d'état*.

**Cromwell in the Parliament House.**

Cromwell accordingly left the council of officers at Whitehall, and hastened to the Parliament House with three hundred soldiers, April 20, 1653. Posting the soldiers in the lobby of the chamber, he entered and took his accustomed seat while Sir Henry Vane was still speaking in behalf of the bill under consideration. He said to St. John, one of the members: "I am come to do what grieves me to the heart." He, however, still sat quiet, until Sir Henry Vane pressed the House to waive its usual forms and pass the bill at once. Thereupon he said to Colonel Harrison: "The time has come." Harrison replied: "Think well, it is a dangerous work!" Cromwell listened quietly for a quarter of an hour longer, until the moment for decisive action on his part should arrive.

**Cromwell Scolds the Members.**

At the question "that this bill do pass," Cromwell suddenly started up, exclaiming: "This is the time—I must do it!" Then addressing the members, he said: "Your hour is come! The Lord hath done with you! He hath chosen other instruments to do his work!" A crowd of members started to their feet in angry protest. Cromwell replied: "Come, come, we have had enough of this!" He then strode into the midst of the chamber, clapped his hat on his head, and exclaimed: "I will put an end to your prating!" The House was at once in an uproar. In the din and confusion, Cromwell was heard to exclaim: "It is not fit that you should sit here any longer! For shame, get you gone! You should give place to honester men—to men who will more faithfully discharge their duties! You are no longer a Parliament! I tell you, you are no longer a Parliament!"

**His Signal.**

At this point Cromwell stamped his foot upon the floor as a signal, whereupon thirty musketeers entered the chamber. The fifty members present crowded to the door. As Wentworth passed him, Cromwell exclaimed: "Drunkard!" Martyn was taunted with a still coarser name.

**Cromwell and Sir Henry Vane.**

Sir Henry Vane was fearless to the last, and boldly told Cromwell that his act was "against all right and all honor." Cromwell exclaimed: "Ah, Sir Henry Vane, Sir Henry Vane! You might have prevented all this, but you are a juggler, and have no common honesty! The Lord deliver me from Sir Henry Vane!"

**Dissolution of the Long Parliament.**

The Speaker refused to leave the chair until Colonel Harrison offered to lend him a hand to come down. Cromwell lifted the mace from the table, saying: "What shall we do with this bauble? Take it away!" As the members rushed out at the door, Cromwell exclaimed: "It is you that have forced me to do this. I have sought the Lord night and day that he would rather slay me than put me upon the doing of this work." After the hall had been cleared, Cromwell ordered the door to

be locked; and, putting the key into his pocket, he returned to Whitehall, undisputed master of England.

Cromwell and Bradshaw.

Thus ended the famous Long Parliament, April 20, 1653, after an existence of thirteen years. A few hours later its executive committee, the Council of State, was dissolved. When Cromwell summoned this committee to withdraw, John Bradshaw, one of its members, replied: "We have heard what you have done this morning at the House, and in some hours all England will hear it. But you mistake, sir, if you think the Parliament dissolved. No power on earth can dissolve the Parliament but itself, be sure of that!"

Cromwell Congratulated.

The "Rump Parliament" had become so unpopular that few appeared to have found fault with Cromwell's violent action. He was deluged with addresses of congratulation from the army, the navy and many of the counties. In alluding to this dissolution several years afterward, Cromwell remarked: "We did not hear a dog bark at their going."

Barebone's Parliament.

Oliver Cromwell was now virtually sole ruler of England, with more real power than any of her most absolute kings. To keep up the appearance of a Commonwealth, he summoned another Parliament, composed of Independents selected by a new Council of State from lists furnished by the Independent, or Congregational churches. This Parliament met July 4, 1653, and was called the *Little Parliament*, or the *Barebone Parliament;* one of its leading members being the leather-seller, "Praise God" Barebone, who was noted for his religious zeal and fanaticism.

Its Radical Reforms.

The radical reforms of the Barebone Parliament in Church and State —such as a new code of laws, the establishment of civil marriage, the proposals to substitute the free contributions of congregations for the payment of tithes, and the scheme for the abolition of lay patronage— aroused the hostility of the lawyers, the clergy and the landed proprietors; all of whom accused Parliament of a design to ruin property, the Church and the law, and of being an enemy to knowledge and infected with a blind and ignorant fanaticism. Cromwell himself, who hated "that leveling principle" which tended to reduce all to one equality, also shared the general dissatisfaction with the proceedings of this Parliament. Said he: "Nothing is in the hearts of these men but 'overturn, overturn.'"

Hume's Account of Its Members' Names.

Hume tells us that this Parliament, in its religious fanaticism, had adopted new names for its members, consisting of several words and sometimes of whole sentences, as "More-fruit" Fowler, "Good-reward" Smart, "Stand-fast-on-high" Stringer, "Fight-the-good-fight-of-faith" White; Barebone himself being named "Praise-God," while his brother received as his name, "If-Christ-had-not-died-for-you-you-

had-been-damned" Barebone, and as this was too long to say every time his name was mentioned he was generally called "Damned" Barebone.

Its Resignation and Dissolution.

The whole conduct of the Barebone Parliament was unsatisfactory; and, after appointing another Council of State consisting of eight members with Cromwell at its head, the members, agreeing that they had sat long enough, went, with Rouse, their Speaker, at their head, to Cromwell, and voluntarily resigned their power into his hands, December, 1653. Cromwell gladly accepted their resignations; and, being told that some of the members had determined to remain, he sent Colonel White with a body of troops to drive them from the house. The colonel, entering the hall, asked the refractory members what they were doing there. One Moyer, whom they had placed in the chair, replied: "We are seeking the Lord." White replied: "Then you may go elsewhere; for, to my certain knowledge, the Lord has not been here these many years." The members then withdrew from the hall, and Cromwell's authority was undisputed.

A New Parliament.

The new Council of State summoned a Parliament to represent England, Scotland and Ireland; the right to vote for members of this Parliament being granted to all possessing property valued at two hundred pounds, excepting Roman Catholics and those who had borne arms in the royal cause during the Great Civil War between Charles I. and the Long Parliament.

Instrument of Government.

Meanwhile, December 16, 1653, a new constitution, called the *Instrument of Government*, projected by General Lambert, was adopted by the Council of State, intrusting Oliver Cromwell with the supreme power, with the title of *Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland and Ireland*. But a strictly constitutional government was organized. The Lord Protector, whose power was conferred upon him for life, was to summon a Parliament once in three years, and to allow it to sit at least five months without prorogation. Parliament was empowered to levy taxes and to make the laws, subject for twenty days to the Lord Protector's veto. The Lord Protector was to consult the Council of State in the management of foreign affairs, in questions of peace and war and in the appointment of officers.

Oliver Cromwell as Lord Protector.

Peace of Westminster.

One of Cromwell's first acts as Lord Protector was to bring the ruinous and destructive naval war between England and Holland to a close; and by the Peace of Westminster, in April, 1654, signed by Cromwell as Lord Protector of the English Commonwealth, the Dutch were required to lower their flag in salute to the English whenever vessels of the two nations met at sea.

In the writs for the election of the new Parliament it had been expressly stated that Parliament should not have power to change the government as conferred upon one person and a Parliament. When the

CHARLES I INSULTED BY THE SOLDIERS OF CROMWELL

From the Painting by Paul Delaroche

Cromwell's Quarrel with the New Parliament and Its Dissolution.

new Parliament assembled at Westminster in September, 1654, its first act was to take into consideration the organization of the government. After the question of the Lord Protector's vote power had been debated three days, Cromwell barred the way to the Parliament chamber by a file of soldiers, and turned back all who refused to sign an agreement not to change the form of government. Three hundred members signed this agreement, and were permitted to enter the chamber; but one hundred refused to sign, and were turned back. The signers observed their agreement, but refused to vote money for the army without a redress of grievances. Thereupon Cromwell, in a fit of anger, dissolved Parliament; and the Lord Protector became as absolute a ruler as Charles I. had been before the Great Civil War, levying taxes and making laws on his sole authority.

Royalist Reaction and Outbreaks.

This state of things produced a powerful reaction in the public mind in England in favor of the restoration of monarchy. Faith in the fundamental principles of the English Commonwealth vanished, as the outward fabric of the Commonwealth crumbled under Cromwell's usurpations. Formidable royalist outbreaks occurred in various parts of England, but the Lord Protector's vigorous hand easily crushed these risings. This royalist revolt was punished by what was called the *decimation* of that party—a tax of the tenth penny on all their revenues. For the collection of this tax, England was divided into ten military districts, and each was placed under martial law, each of the ten major-generals who were placed over these districts respectively being authorized to imprison all whom they suspected. Scotland and Ireland were reduced to order, but the severities which the English soldiers practiced in Ireland have left their bitter fruit of undying hatred of English rule to the present day.

Irish Animosity.

Cromwell's Vigorous Rule.

As Lord Protector, Cromwell governed vigorously and successfully, and made himself feared and respected at home and abroad. England was never more prosperous than under his firm rule. Cromwell reformed the law and established uniformity in the administration of justice. He declared that "to hang a man for sixpence and pardon murder" did not accord with his idea of justice.

His Protection of the Jews and Quakers.

He never deviated from the great principle of religious toleration, on which he took an early stand. He quietly permitted the Jews, who had remained banished from England ever since the reign of Edward I., to return, and exerted himself to his utmost to protect them from persecution. He also protected the new Puritan sect of the *Friends*, or *Quakers*, founded by George Fox, a Leicestershire shepherd, during the period of the civil wars.

Cromwell's crude but effective statesmanship displayed itself to its best advantage in his management of foreign affairs. He boasted that

Foreign Respect for England under Cromwell.

he would make the name of *Englishmen* as much feared and respected as had been that of *Roman*, and the uniform success of his military and naval enterprises went far to realize this saying. European monarchs, in whose capitals at the beginning of the Commonwealth the lives of English ambassadors were in peril, now earnestly sought the Lord Protector's alliance. He made his power felt and feared by the pirates of the Barbary coast who had terrorized the Mediterranean for more than a century, and by the Spaniards in Europe and America.

The Piratical Barbary Powers Humbled by Admiral Blake.

Admiral Blake sailed into the Mediterranean with his fleet, and conquered all that ventured to oppose him. Casting anchor before Leghorn, he demanded and received satisfaction for some injuries which the Duke of Tuscany had inflicted upon English commerce. He next sailed to Algiers and forced the Dey to a treaty of peace and to restrain his piratical subjects from injuring the English any further. In 1655 Blake proceeded to Tunis, where he made the same demands. The Dey of Tunis desired the English admiral to look at the two castles, Porto Farino and Goletta, and to do his utmost. Blake showed him that he was ready to accept the challenge, entered the harbor of Tunis, burned the Dey's ships, and then sailed out of the harbor in triumph to pursue his voyage. Thus Admiral Blake cleared the sea of the pirates who had so long infested it, and secured the liberation of the captive Christians held in slavery in the Barbary states.

War with Spain.

In 1655 the shrewd Cardinal Mazarin, the Prime Minister and virtual ruler of France during the minority of King Louis XIV., by flattering Cromwell, induced England to become the ally of France in a war against Spain. In 1655 Admiral Penn and General Venables conquered the island of Jamacia, in the West Indies, from the Spaniards; and that island ever since has belonged to England. Admiral Sir William Penn was the father of the founder of Pennsylvania.

Conquest of Jamaica.

Blake's Victories over the Spanish Fleets.

Admiral Blake captured two Spanish treasure galleons of immense value at Cadiz. In 1657 he defeated a fleet of Spanish merchant vessels and treasure galleons off the harbor of Santa Cruz, in the island of Teneriffe, under the cannon of their castle and seven forts; but this was the last conflict in which the great admiral engaged, as he died within sight of the English coast on his homeward voyage. Blake was an ardent republican, and he therefore opposed Cromwell's usurpation; but said he to his seamen: "It is still our duty to fight for our country, into whatever hands the government may fall."

English Acquisition of Dunkirk.

In 1658 an English force of six thousand men under General Reynolds joined the French in the Spanish Netherlands; and the important harbor and fortress of Dunkirk, which the allies took from the Spaniards, was ceded to England by France as a reward for the English aid in the war.

Cromwell's Intervention in Favor of the Persecuted Vaudois.

Under Cromwell, England again occupied the position which she had held under Elizabeth as the protectress of the Protestant interests in Europe. The Waldenses, or Vaudois, in the valleys of Piedmont and among the Alps, had suffered cruel persecutions from their ruler, the Duke of Savoy, many of them being cruelly massacred. Cromwell sent an envoy to the duke's court with haughty demands for redress, and was threatening earthly vengeance; while the Puritan poet, John Milton, called upon God to avenge his "slaughtered saints whose bones lie scattered on the Alpine mountains cold." A refusal of the Lord Protector's demands would have been followed by instant war, and so the Duke of Savoy desisted from his persecutions, being largely influenced thereto by Cardinal Mazarin, the French Prime Minister. This intervention, which saved the Vaudois from further massacre and persecution, pleased the English and commanded the respect of all Europe. Cromwell was resolved upon the protection of the Protestants of the Continent of Europe from persecution, and was ready to make the thunder of his cannon heard at the Castle of St. Angelo and the Vatican, if necessary to secure such protection.

Parliament Offers Cromwell a Crown.

In 1656 Cromwell summoned another Parliament. This Parliament voted supplies, but protested against the military despotism which prevailed in England. Cromwell at once withdrew the troops quartered in the ten military divisions. This Parliament offered to Cromwell its "Humble Petition and Advice" that he would assume the crown and the kingly title. This offer of the royal dignity was not intended so much as an additional honor to Cromwell as for the security and tranquillity of the nation.

His Rejection of the Offer.

An existing law provided that no subject should be accused of treason because of his allegiance to the king for the time being, however the crown might be disposed of afterward. No such security existed, in case of a Stuart restoration, for the supporters of the Lord Protector. But an acceptance of the crown by Cromwell, while it would have satisfied his moderate and timid partisans, would have offended the army and all staunch republicans; and for that reason Cromwell refused the title and emblems of royalty. He was, however, reinvested with the Lord Protectorship, with well-nigh royal ceremony—with the purple robe, the scepter and the sword—and was empowered to name his successor.

Cromwell's Arbitrary and Tyrannical Rule.

The Lord Protector was already worn out by the cares of state. Even his enemies conceded that his administration had been marked with almost unparalleled energy and success. His firm, wise and tolerant policy had put an end to the religious dissensions which had agitated England for more than a century. But in managing the prejudices of the nation, Cromwell had been more arbitrary and tyrannical in his

treatment of Parliament than even King Charles I. had ever been. The Lord Protector had also levied taxes without the consent of Parliament; and when one who had thus suffered appealed to the courts for legal redress, as John Hampden had done in 1637, his lawyers were arrested and imprisoned in the Tower. Although the Protectorate ably promoted the private interests of the English people, it was a despotism in form, and Cromwell was painfully aware of the fact.

**Conspiracies against Cromwell.**

Cromwell's situation was not an enviable one. He was now equally hated by the royalists and the republicans, and many plots were formed against his power and his life. The emissaries of Prince Charles Stuart at Brussels or Cologne were active. Every hour added to Cromwell's disquietude. Lord Fairfax, Sir William Waller and many other Presbyterian leaders had secretly conspired to destroy him. His expensive and extravagant administration had exhausted his revenue and burdened him with debt.

**His Daughters.**

Cromwell's eldest daughter, Mrs. Fleetwood, the wife of General Fleetwood, whom she had married after the death of her first husband, General Ireton, was so violent a republican that she dreaded to see her father invested with supreme power. His favorite daughter, Mrs. Claypole, was a staunch royalist; and on her deathbed she reproached her father for overturning the monarchy. His other daughters, Lady Franconberg and Lady Rich, were also zealous royalists.

**His Fear of Assassination.**

Conspiracy after conspiracy embittered the last days of Cromwell's life. And finally, to render the Lord Protector's last days more miserable, Colonel Titus published a book entitled *Killing no Murder*, in which the assassination of Cromwell was held up as desirable and even meritorious. Said this writer: "Shall we, who would not suffer the lion to invade us, tamely stand to be devoured by the wolf?" Cromwell read this spirited pamphlet, and was never seen to smile again. Thereafter the Lord Protector was in constant fear of assassination. He wore armor under his clothes, and always carried pistols in his pockets. His countenance was gloomy, and he trusted no one. When he traveled out he was attended by a numerous guard. He never returned by the same road which he went, and he did not sleep more than three nights in the same room.

**His Death.**

Cromwell was delivered from his miserable existence by an attack of ague, of which he died September 3, 1658—the anniversary of his great victories at Dunbar and Worcester, and a day which he had always regarded as the most fortunate of his life. Thus died the greatest man that England ever produced—a great general, statesman and ruler.

**His Greatness and Motives.**

There is a wide difference of opinion concerning Cromwell's character and motives. Personally he was a great man, having risen from the common walks of life until he acquired a renown truly royal, but he

still retained his Puritan simplicity and piety. Of course he was somewhat actuated by the promptings of ambition; but it is possible that he possessed a great, earnest soul, chiefly animated by a patriotic desire to promote the welfare of his country.

**His Moderation and Conservatism.**

Had Cromwell been of royal blood, and had the English throne been his birthright, his administration would have been the pride and boast of Englishmen of all subsequent ages. But he has been obliged to bear the odium of all the extreme measures that followed the Great Civil War. His moderate counsels, however, availed to frustrate the wild schemes that always spring up in times of revolution and civil commotion, both when he was Captain-General of the Puritan army and when he was Lord Protector of the Commonwealth. He sometimes endangered his influence with his own soldiers and his prestige with his partisan followers by his conservatism.

**Character of the Puritan Soldiers.**

Seldom are armies composed of such positive minds as the Puritan soldiers of England in the days of the Commonwealth. Almost any one of them was able to preach to his fellows what they called a sermon, and each one also had his own ideas of government as well as of religion. Even such an iron will as that of Cromwell was not always able to direct and control such stiff-necked material. It has been said with great truth concerning his policy with his army, that "to ordinarily govern, Cromwell was sometimes compelled to submit."

**Cromwell's Intuitions.**

Cromwell was far ahead of his time in some respects. In her treatment of the religious question, England is at the present time slowly moving along in the path which the great Lord Protector marked out for her more than two centuries ago. He had an intuitive sense of the English nation's ills and of the proper remedies to be applied. The wonderful success of his policy is the best evidence of the general correctness of his intuitions.

**Views of His Arbitrary Rule.**

The personal and constitutional elements were strangely mingled in Cromwell's government. Though ordinarily ruling in accordance with the laws, he did not hesitate to override or change them when they stood in his way. When Parliament failed to meet his expectations, he dissolved it, like Charles I.; and, like that king, he then ruled alone. But the parallel ends there. Charles I. ruled to uphold the royal prerogative. Cromwell ruled to promote the tranquillity and prosperity of England. But, while Cromwell lived, there was a universal feeling that the laws and the Constitution of England were always at the mercy of an individual will. However favorable to public order and national progress under a wise administration, such a system as Cromwell's was incompatible with a free constitution. Under a weak head anarchy would be the inevitable result, and under an ambitious one the natural consequence would be a despotism.

Royalist Views.

Cromwell's enemies were unrelenting. In the view of priest and Churchman he was the very ideal of a fanatic, although he was the most tolerant man in England. In the opinion of Cavalier and nobleman he was simply an upstart and an interloper, though his administration was able and just, commanding the respect of all Christendom. The royalist considered him only a low-born usurper and a proper victim for every assassin's dagger, though he made England so great and powerful that the very name of *Englishman* became a shield to the humblest individual bearing it in any part of the civilized world.

His Usurpation and Its Result.

Nevertheless, with all his patriotism, Cromwell was a usurper. Any ruler who can, even once, set aside an established constitution, or trample the recognized law under foot, is a usurper; and Cromwell did this at will. The English people had just overthrown a royal tyranny to preserve their constitutional liberties; but, when the violent despotism of the Stuart dynasty merely made room for Cromwell's milder despotism, English freedom was won only to be lost again. The legitimate result of Cromwell's usurpation in 1653 was the restoration of the Stuart monarchy in 1660, along with the disappearance of religious toleration and constitutional liberty for well-nigh a generation.

Richard Cromwell as Lord Protector.

Richard Cromwell, Oliver's son, was proclaimed Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, upon his father's death; but Richard, who had no executive abilities or firmness whatever, and who was of a quiet and unambitious nature, found himself unable to hold in check the contending factions in Parliament and in the army, or to govern a people almost on the verge of rebellion. The tide of reaction was felt even in his Council of State, which at once cast aside one of the greatest of his illustrious father's reforms, and summoned a new Parliament on the old system of election. In the new House of Commons the republicans under Sir Henry Vane, adroitly backed by the royalists, violently assailed Cromwell's system. The fiercest attack of all was made by Sir Ashley Cooper, a Dorsetshire gentleman, who had changed sides during the Great Civil War, having first fought for King Charles I. and then for the Long Parliament, and who had been a member of Cromwell's Council of State and had recently ceased to be a member of that Council.

Sir Henry Vane and Sir Ashley Cooper.

Cooper's Violent Attacks.

Sir Ashley Cooper denounced Oliver Cromwell as "His Highness of deplorable memory, who with fraud and force deprived you of your liberty when living and entailed slavery on you at his death." Cooper also made a virulent attack on the army in these words: "They have not only subdued their enemies, but the masters who raised and maintained them! They have not only conquered Scotland and Ireland, but rebellious England too; and there suppressed a Malignant party of magistrates and laws."

Menacing Attitude of the Army.

The army under Generals Lambert and Fleetwood—the latter of whom was Richard Cromwell's eldest sister's husband—then conspired against the new Lord Protector. The Commons at once ordered the dismissal of all officers who refused to engage "not to disturb or interrupt the free meetings of Parliament." Richard Cromwell thereupon ordered the council of military officers to dissolve. They forced the new Lord Protector to dissolve Parliament. The army was resolved upon the overthrow of Richard Cromwell; and, rather than confront the crisis, Richard quietly resigned the Lord Protectorship, after holding it a few months, and retired to private life, early in 1659.

Richard Cromwell's Resignation.

Struggle between the "Rump Parliament" and the Army.

After the resignation of Richard Cromwell, England was virtually without any government, and each party endeavored to obtain the supremacy. The "Rump Parliament," which Oliver Cromwell had so violently dissolved in April, 1653, reassembled, and assumed the direction of national affairs. But this Parliament did not possess the confidence of any party. A royalist rising occurred in Cheshire under Sir George Booth. The nation was tired of military rule; and Sir Arthur Haslerig, encouraged by the temper of the troops in Scotland and Ireland, made a demand in Parliament for the dismissal of Generals Fleetwood and Lambert from their commands. Thereupon the army under General Lambert dissolved Parliament by driving the members from Westminster. This was the end of the reconvened Long Parliament, and General Lambert then undertook the control of public affairs, A. D. 1659.

General Monk's Secret Design.

It was now the settled conviction of many that nothing but the restoration of monarchy would free England from a state of anarchy. General Monk, who commanded the army in Scotland and who had long hated General Lambert, secretly formed the design of restoring the monarchy in the person of Prince Charles, the eldest son of the late unfortunate monarch; and at once entered into a correspondence with the prince, who was then living in Holland.

His March from Scotland.

As Governor of Scotland, General Monk assembled a convention at Edinburgh, and strengthened himself with money and recruits. He then advanced to Coldstream, whereupon the cry of "a free Parliament" spread over all England like wildfire. The cry was taken up by General Fairfax, who rose in arms in Yorkshire, and also by the fleet in the Thames and the mob of London. The army endeavored to check the tide of popular feeling by recalling the Commons; but it was too late, as the restoration of monarchy under the Stuart dynasty was fast becoming inevitable.

Royalist Reaction.

General Monk's Secret Action.

So well did General Monk conceal his design that no one knew with which party he was acting, and he was enabled to march unopposed from Scotland to London, which city he entered February 3, 1660.

General Lambert in the meantime had been imprisoned in the Tower by his own troops, who now joined Monk, having been deceived by that general's declaration of loyalty to the "good old cause." Monk had also protested his loyalty to the old "Rump Parliament," while he accepted petitions for a "free Parliament."

Convention-Parliament of 1660.

At Ashley Cooper's instigation, the Presbyterian members of the Long Parliament, who had been excluded from the House of Commons by Colonel Pride's Purge, again forced their way into Parliament, and at once resolved upon a dissolution and the election of a new House of Commons. The new Convention-Parliament met April 25, 1660, and showed its Presbyterian temper by adopting the Solemn League and Covenant, and by drawing up terms upon which a restoration of monarchy under the Stuart dynasty might be assented to; but, in the midst of their deliberations, they found that they had been deceived and betrayed by General Monk, who had secretly negotiated with the exiled Prince Charles Stuart, who was then at Breda, in Holland; thus rendering all exaction of terms impossible.

General Monk and Prince Charles Stuart.

Monk's Proposal and Its Popular Reception.

On May 1, 1660, Monk threw off the mask by proposing to the Convention-Parliament, which had just been assembled, the restoration of the monarchy. This proposal was hailed with joy by the English people, who were tired of the condition of anarchy which had prevailed since the death of Oliver Cromwell. The House of Lords hastened to reinstate itself in its former dignity. In the "Declaration of Breda," the exiled Prince Charles Stuart promised a general amnesty, religious toleration, and satisfaction to the army—promises which were received with an outburst of popular enthusiasm throughout England.

Restoration of Monarchy.

The Convention-Parliament at once voted "that according to the ancient and fundamental laws of this kingdom, the government is, and ought to be, by King, Lords and Commons." The vote had hardly passed when Prince Charles Stuart landed at Dover, May 25, 1660. Four days later, May 29, 1660—his thirtieth birthday—he made his triumphal entry into London, amid the exultant shouts of the populace, and was on that memorable day solemnly crowned King of England, Scotland and Ireland with the title of CHARLES II. Puritan England ended with the Stuart Restoration, and all was restored as before.

Accession of Charles II.

"The Downfall of Puritanism."

The thirty thousand veterans of the old Puritan army, drawn up at Blackheath to witness the return of young Charles Stuart to the land and throne of his father, was one of the most suggestive pictures in the annals of England. That spectacle can be truly termed "The Downfall of Puritanism." Those grim and stalwart veterans, who had controlled the destinies of England for almost a score of years—whose dauntless valor and irresistible charges had carried consternation into the ranks of the Cavaliers, the Scotch Covenanters and the Irish rebels

—stood like lifeless statues, while the pealing bells, the blazing bonfires and the exultant shouts of the populace welcomed the returning Stuart to the throne of his ancestors.

Quiet Disbanding of the Puritan Army.

These Puritan soldiers had swept away the English throne, the House of Lords and the State Church of England, and had reorganized or dismissed the House of Commons as they saw fit. But now they were beaten without a battle, in the presence of the people, who were reinspired with their old reverence for royalty. The old heroes of Marston Moor and Neasby, of Preston, of Dunbar and Worcester, now sadly and thoughtfully, but without a murmur, laid down their arms and quietly returned to their homes, thereafter to be distinguished from their neighbors only by greater industry and sobriety. Puritanism had its representative in Oliver Cromwell, and his usurpation of power was considered a Puritan usurpation. Puritanism became a political force, instead of a moral power, when Cromwell assumed the powers and dignity of royalty without the name, and when he governed England through his army instead of his Parliament; and therefore at Cromwell's death the downfall of Puritanism was inevitable.

Puritan Transformation.

As a political experiment, Puritanism had fallen never to rise again—had ended in utter failure and disgust; but as a religious system of national life it brought about the wildest outbreak of a moral revolt that ever convulsed England. But Puritanism was not dead. Its political death was merely a transformation. There now arose a nobler, a grander Puritanism, whose spirit and whose influence has fully manifested itself in two great works which have since been transmitted from generation to generation—John Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress*, that Puritan allegory which has been the most popular of all religious books; and John Milton's *Paradise Lost*, that Puritan epic which has been the most popular of all English poems.

Works of Bunyan and Milton.

## SECTION IV.—STUART RESTORATION AND REVOLUTION OF 1688 (A. D. 1660–1689).

Charles II., A. D. 1660–1685.

Few sovereigns ever ascended a throne under more auspicious circumstances than did Charles II. No English king was ever welcomed with so wild a delight as was he. The frenzied joy of the people of London was demonstrated by ringing bells, blazing bonfires, glad songs and shouts. The English people were relieved of great anxiety, as it had been doubtful who could take hold of the helm of state which Oliver Cromwell's strong hands had dropped; and Englishmen hoped that adversity and exile would have a tendency to make the young Stuart a wise and useful monarch.

Popular Rejoicings at His Accession.

Reasons for the Public Joy.

Although Cromwell ruled with justice and made England glorious, the English people did not become reconciled to the practical despotism which he had established. Even republicans were reluctant to live under a government republican merely in name. As we have seen, under Richard Cromwell and after his resignation England was fast relapsing into anarchy. In fact, after his resignation England was virtually without a head, and even without a settled government. The monarchy had been abolished, and the republic had proven a failure. None could tell what would follow, but all saw very clearly that the Puritan army was the sole arbiter of the fate of England. The one fate to be dreaded was a succession of irresponsible military despots.

England's Escape from Anarchy.

Puritans and Churchmen, republicans and royalists, perceived the abyss that yawned before them, and forgot their differences for a time. The only alternative for a peril that all could see but none could fathom was the restoration of the monarchy and the return of the Stuart dynasty. It was not, as has sometimes been asserted, the fickleness of the English people that caused them to welcome the return of the younger Charles Stuart to his father's throne with such unbounded enthusiasm; but it was their conscious and narrow escape from countless national woes.

Anti-Puritan Reaction.

The rule of the Puritans had been made irksome to the English people because of their extreme legislation. Piety, or its profession, had been made an essential qualification for office; while innocent amusements had been strictly prohibited. The restoration of monarchy was followed by the repeal of Puritan legislation, and the inevitable result was reaction and a great social revolution. At no other time was the dance around the May-pole on the village green so joyous as now, and Christmas festivities were resumed with more than their accustomed hilarity.

Popular Disappointment with Charles II.

The reign of Charles II. would have been more peaceful and popular had he possessed but ordinary wisdom, and had his father's experience and his own early misfortunes taught him to study and respect the wishes of his subjects. But he violated all the promises which he had made, and disappointed all the expectations of the English people. Although they welcomed the removal of the unnatural restraints introduced by Puritanism, they were were not prepared for the unbridled license that prevailed throughout the country after the Stuart Restoration. Very soon they were turning in disgust from the king whose accession they had hailed with such delight, and were wishing that they still had the great Lord Protector to rule over them.

The history of the stage most vividly illustrates the extent of this great social revolution. Under Puritan rule even the most innocent theatrical performances had been rigidly prohibited. After the Stuart

Vulgarity of the Stage and Fashionable Life.

Restoration the theater was restored, foul and revolting, even destitute of a French refinement to its grossness. Real life in fashionable circles was reflected by the painted scenery and loose manners of the new stage. King Charles II. himself took the lead in the disgraceful revels of the royal court. The court furnished the standard of morality to the capital, whence the deadly contagion spread, infecting fashionable society throughout the entire kingdom. Religion became a byword, and morality became a mockery.

Macaulay's Statement.

Says Macaulay concerning the corrupt state of fashionable society in England during the reign of Charles II.: "There have come over with him vices of every sort, and the basest and most shameful lust without love, servitude without loyalty, foulness of speech, dishonesty of dealing, grinning contempt of all things good and generous. The throne is surrounded by men whom the former Charles would have spurned from his footstool. The altar is served by slaves whose knees are supple to every being but God. Rhymers whose books the hangman should burn, panders, actors and buffoons, these drink a health and throw a main with the king; these have stars in their breasts and gold sticks in their hands; these shut out from his presence the best and bravest of those who bled for his house. Even so doth God visit those who know not how to value freedom."

Permanence of Puritan Virtues.

The great mass of the English people, however, remained uncontaminated by this incoming tide of vice. Although Puritanism, as a political power, was dead, and its very name had become a jest among the now dominant Cavaliers, the minds and hearts of the English people had become too deeply imbued with the sturdy virtues and the deep religious spirit which were the very essence of Puritanism to be corrupted by the social pollution which followed in the wake of the Stuart Restoration. These Puritan virtues and this religious spirit still remained to mould English character and to modify English institutions, and are now the most precious inheritance of Englishmen.

Character of Charles II.

Charles II. was thirty years old when he found himself so unexpectedly seated on the throne of England. He had an agreeable person, a polished address and a cheerful and engaging demeanor. His whole deportment tended to secure favor and popularity. His excessive indolence and love of pleasure made him hate business and leave the affairs of government to others. All that the new sovereign cared for was to live idly and jovially.

Ministry of the Earl of Clarendon.

The first measures of the new monarch gave general satisfaction to the English nation. Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, highly esteemed for his virtues, was placed at the head of the Ministry; and by his uprightness and prudence the government was conducted for some time with justice and moderation.

Act of Oblivion and Indemnity.

The Convention-Parliament which restored the monarchy in 1660 at the beginning of the new reign passed an *Act of Oblivion and Indemnity*, extending a general amnesty to all who had taken sides against King Charles I. during the Great Civil War, excepting the leaders who had been most directly concerned in procuring the death of Charles I. Of those brought to trial, thirteen were executed as regicides, and many were imprisoned for life, although Charles II. had practically promised to pardon all who voluntarily came forward and surrendered themselves. Many fled to foreign lands; three of them—Goffe, Whalley and Dixwell—finding refuge in the English colonies in America.

Fate of Regicides.

Trial of Regicides.

A court was organized for the trial of twenty-nine of the regicides. This court was partly composed of men who as Parliamentary leaders had been most active in bringing on the crisis, but who had no immediate part in the death of Charles I. The twenty-nine regicides who were brought before this court for trial were not permitted to make any defense. Their judges acted as witnesses against them. By a refinement of cruelty, the executioner, with his axes, was brought into court and seated beside the prisoners. The few witnesses against them were suborned, but almost all of the prisoners were condemned to death.

General Harrison on His Way to the Scaffold.

The first of these regicides to suffer death was the good old republican general, Harrison, whose honest soldier-like appearance and gallant demeanor had disarmed the suspicion and even excited the involuntary admiration of Charles I. when that king was a captive. General Harrison was drawn on a hurdle from Newgate to Charing Cross, within sight of the palace of Whitehall, October 13, 1660. As he was borne along, his countenance was serene and even cheerful. A brutal wretch called out from the multitude: "Where is your good old cause now?" Harrison smiled as he put his hand on his breast, and said: "Here it is. I am going to seal it with my blood." On the way he said aloud several times: "I go to suffer upon account of the most glorious cause that ever was in the world."

His Address on the Scaffold.

General Harrison ascended the high scaffold with a firm step, and there addressed the multitude of his revilers and accusers. Among other things he told them that, though he was unjustly charged with murder, he had always kept a good conscience both toward God and toward man; that he had no guilt upon his conscience, but comfort and consolation, and the blessed hope of eternal peace in the next world.

His Horrible Execution.

Then followed a most revolting scene. Harrison was cut from the gallows alive, and saw his own bowels thrown into a fire. He was then quartered; and his heart, still palpitating, was torn out and shown to the people. King Charles II. looked at this detestable scene from a short distance.

Execution of Carew, Coke and Peters.

Two days later, October 15, 1660, John Carew suffered death in the same manner, declaring with his last breath that the cause of liberty would survive. The next day, October 16, 1660, Coke and Peters were also drawn to Charing Cross. In order to strike terror into the heart of the learned Coke, who had been the counsel for Parliament in the trial of Charles I., Charles II. caused the ghastly head of General Harrison, with the face exposed and turned toward him, to be carried in the same hurdle; but the brave Coke was animated with fresh courage at beholding the horrid sight. The good old Puritan preacher, Peters, was brought within the railing around the scaffold, and was thus obliged to see the quartering of Coke. When the executioner had gotten through with Coke he came to Peters, rubbing his bloody hands, and asked the old preacher how he liked that work. Peters replied that he was not in the least terrified, and he met death with a serene smile upon his countenance.

Execution of Sir Henry Vane and Others.

Scenes as revolting characterized the execution of the other regicides who had been condemned to death. All died with firmness, glorying in the cause of liberty for which they now suffered on the scaffold. Among the number was Sir Henry Vane. The bold and determined attitude of those who suffered, and their addresses from the scaffold to the multitudes before them, produced their natural effect upon the people. Popular sympathy turned in favor of the executed regicides, and thus their execution was demonstrated to have been a political blunder.

Burnet's Statement.

Says Burnet: "Though the regicides were at that time odious beyond all expression, and the trials and executions of the first that suffered were run to by vast crowds, and all people seemed pleased with the sight, yet the odiousness of the crime came at last to be so much flattened by the frequent executions, and by most of those who suffered dying with so much firmness and show of piety, justifying what they had done, not without a seeming joy for their suffering on that account, that the king was advised not to proceed farther, or at least not to have the scene so near the court as Charing Cross."

Indignities to the Bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, Bradshaw, Pym and Blake.

Oliver Cromwell, though dead, was regarded as a proper object of revenge. His body, and those of Ireton and Bradshaw, were torn from their tombs in Westminster Abbey, and hung upon the gallows at Tyburn, the place for the execution of the lowest malefactors. This base and silly revenge upon the lifeless remains of these three great leaders of the Puritan Commonwealth furnished a mark for the drunken insults of those who feared them when they were living. Their remains were thrown into a deep pit at Tyburn, and the bodies of Pym and Blake were also cast out of Westminster Abbey into St. Margaret's churchyard. Indignities were also offered to the bodies of Cromwell's

mother and his eldest daughter, the last of whom had been the wife of General Ireton and General Fleetwood successively; though both women had been models of female domestic virtue.

**Milton's Dismissal.** Charles II. also let the weight of his displeasure fall upon the illustrious Puritan poet, John Milton, one of the best and greatest men of the age, who had been Cromwell's Latin secretary. Milton was now deprived of all his employments, and narrowly escaped with his life, for having written a noble *Defense of the English People* in their controversy with Charles I. General Monk was rewarded for his treason to his late republican associates by being created Duke of Albemarle and generalissimo.

**Monk's Reward.**

**Royalist Dissatisfaction.** The Act of Oblivion and Indemnity restored to the royalists the estates which the Commonwealth had confiscated, except when the transfer had been made by sale; but this act gave the royalists no redress for other losses. For this reason the dissatisfied Cavaliers called it "one of oblivion to the king's friends and indemnity to his enemies," as many of them had been mulcted without mercy under the Commonwealth, and many had been compelled to give up their estates to meet the necessities of the government.

**Last Vestige of the Feudal System Abolished.** The Convention-Parliament abolished the last vestige of the Feudal System—the tenure of lands by knight service, including the wardships of minors and the marriage of heiresses; which had been adequate sources of revenue to the king, and instead of which he now received a life-grant of one million two hundred thousand pounds.

**The Cavalier Parliament.** The dissolution of the Convention-Parliament and a new election resulted in the return of the *Cavalier Parliament* of 1661, which endeavored by successive acts to restore Episcopacy as the state religion of England. The Solemn League and Covenant was ordered to be burned by the public hangman. Charles II. himself became an Episcopalian, and declared that "Presbyterianism is no religion for a gentleman."

**Corporation Act.** The *Corporation Act*, passed by the Cavalier Parliament, required all public officials to worship in accordance with the usages of the State Church of England, to renounce the Covenant, and to take an oath denying the right of a subject to resist the king under any circumstances whatever.

**Act of Uniformity.** A new *Act of Uniformity*, passed by the same Parliament, required all the clergy to adopt the Book of Common Prayer and to assent to all its contents, on penalty of ejection from their livings. Two thousand Puritan clergymen were ejected from their livings on the anniversary of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew for refusing to comply with this Act of Uniformity.

**Conventicle Act.** The *Conventicle Act*, another measure of the Cavalier Parliament, forbade the meeting of more than five persons at one place and time

for worship, except by the use of the liturgy; and the *Five Mile Act*, also passed by this Parliament, forbade any dispossessed clergyman to appear within five miles of any town or of his former parish, and excluded all such Nonconformist and Dissenting clergymen from the work of instructing the young, dooming them to penury and even to starvation and death. The penalties for violation of these statutes were fines, imprisonment and banishment; and English prisons were soon filled with Puritan offenders, among whom was John Bunyan, who was incarcerated for twelve years in Bedford jail, during which he wrote *Pilgrim's Progress.*

**Five Mile Act.**

**Bunyan's Imprisonment.**

The Cavalier Parliament also passed an act for the suppression of the Quakers, who were particularly odious on account of their refusal to bear arms or take oaths. Their founder, George Fox, suffered the most unrelenting persecution, his meetings being broken up and himself imprisoned. In the course of a few years twelve thousand Quakers were in prison.

**Persecution of George Fox and His Quakers.**

Although Charles II. had solemnly signed the Scotch Covenant at Scone on New Year's Day, 1651, thus pledging himself to maintain the Presbyterian religion in Scotland, he was no sooner securely established on the thrones of England and Scotland than he not only turned Episcopalian himself, but also resolved to force his Scotch subjects to accept Episcopacy. The Earl of Lauderdale was sent to Scotland as Governor with unlimited powers to carry out the king's will, and he was aided by a Privy Council; while a body of troops, called the *Life-guard*, was enlisted to maintain the royal authority and to sustain its agents.

**Attempt to Force Episcopacy on Scotland.**

The "Drunken Parliament" of Scotland far surpassed the Convention and Cavalier Parliaments of England in its loyalty to King Charles II., annulling all the acts of preceding Scottish Parliaments for twenty-eight years, and ordering the Marquis of Argyle and the famous divine James Guthrie, the leaders of the Covenanters, to be seized and executed in May, 1661. Episcopal bishops were appointed for Scotland, and James Sharp was created Archbishop of St. Andrews and Primate of Scotland.

**The "Drunken Parliament" of Scotland.**

In 1662 the Scotch Parliament passed an act requiring all officers of the crown in Scotland to sign a declaration that the Covenant was an illegal oath, and therefore not binding. All clergymen in Scotland were required to be reinstated in their livings by a bishop. Those who refused were ordered to resign their churches and to remove with their families from their parishes. Thereupon three hundred and fifty Presbyterian ministers resigned, and were followed by their congregations into the open fields, where they held religious services in accordance with the dictates of their consciences.

**Dismissal of Presbyterian Preachers.**

Cruel Persecution of Scotch Covenanters.

The Scotch Parliament enacted severe laws to force the Presbyterian clergymen to discontinue their preaching and to compel the Covenanters to attend their parish churches, in which the Episcopal service was now conducted. The arbitrary Court of High Commission was revived, and a most cruel and unrelenting warfare was commenced against all Scots who refused to conform to the standard of the Episcopal State Church of England. Soldiers were posted at the various centers in Scotland to compel the Covenanters to attend the worship of the Established Church and to collect fines from non-attendants. The royal troops attacked the "conventicles," as the open-air meetings of the Covenanters were called by the Episcopalians, and hunted the Covenanters through the country, cruelly torturing or executing them when they captured them, sparing neither age nor sex in these relentless persecutions.

Brutal Massacres and Tortures.

The faithful Covenanters, when driven from the open fields, armed for self-defense and held secret meetings in the woods at midnight, where they were sometimes surprised and mercilessly massacred by English soldiers. Many an awful death by slow and cruel torture, many a sad and lingering one in dark and dreary dungeons, occurred in the sea-girt prison of Bass Rock and the gloomy walls of Dumbarton Castle.

Outbreaks and Increased Persecutions.

The cruelties of the royal troops caused several outbreaks of the Covenanters. An impotent rising of the persecuted Covenanters in the vicinity of Edinburgh in 1662 was seized upon as a pretext for the most barbarous legislation against them on the part of the Scotch Parliament. The unfortunate Covenanters became the victims of the most dreadful cruelty, the thumb-screw and the "boot" being common instruments of torture.

Constancy and Devotion of the Scotch Covenanters.

Thenceforth until the Revolution of 1688 the Scotch Covenanters maintained their faith amidst persecutions and sufferings which shock the mind. The prisons of Scotland were filled with Covenanters. Archbishop Sharp was generally regarded as the one responsible for this cruel persecution. The most formidable uprising of the Covenanters was crushed in the battle of Pentland in 1666.

King Charles II. Not a Persecutor.

The persecutions of the Puritans of England and the Covenanters of Scotland were the acts of the royalist Councils and the Parliaments of the two kingdoms, as the careless nature of King Charles II. rendered him unfit for a persecutor. So far as he was personally concerned, the king was a Roman Catholic, if anything; and he sometimes insisted upon indulgence for Dissenters and Nonconformists, in order to shield Catholic "Recusants." But the disgraceful licentiousness of his court alarmed and disgusted even his best friends and staunchest adherents.

BATTLE OF SOLEBAY

From the Painting by E. Isabey

Marriage of Charles II.

In 1662 King Charles II. married Catharine of Braganza, a daughter of King Alfonso VI. of Portugal. Tangier, in the north-western corner of Africa, and Bombay, in Hindoostan, were ceded to England by Portugal as the new queen's dowry. As Tangier was of no practical use it was soon abandoned, while Bombay was bestowed upon the English East India Company.

Sale of Dunkirk to France.

The king's Portuguese marriage aroused popular dissatisfaction in England; but the English people were aroused to the greatest indignation when Charles II. sold Dunkirk to France, thus parting with this foreign acquisition of England in Cromwell's time, to replenish his coffers, which were constantly exhausted notwithstanding the lavish revenues which Parliament granted him. The English people regarded the sale of Dunkirk to France by Charles II. as the greatest national disgrace that had befallen them since the loss of Calais to the same foreign power during the reign of "Bloody Mary" little more than a century before.

Second Naval War with the Dutch Republic.

The English people were also dissatisfied when King Charles II. involved them in a useless naval war with Holland, in 1664. This war was caused by the rivalry of the English and Dutch merchants seeking a monopoly of the trade in ivory and gold-dust on the coast of Guinea, in Western Africa. The principal English naval commanders in this war were the king's brother James, Duke of York; Prince Rupert of the Palatinate, so famous as a royalist general under Charles I. in the Great Civil War; and the Duke of Albemarle, formerly General Monk.

English Conquest of New Netherlands.

In 1664 an English fleet sent to America conquered the Dutch colony of New Netherlands, taking its capital, New Amsterdam. King Charles II. granted the conquered Dutch province to his brother James, Duke of York, as a reward for his services in the war. The name of New Amsterdam was then changed to *New York*, as was also the name of the entire province of New Netherlands, while the name of Fort Orange, on the Hudson, was changed to *Albany*. In 1665 an English fleet under the Duke of York won a signal victory over the Dutch fleet under Opdam off Lowestoff, on the coast of Suffolk.

Great Plague and Great Fire in London.

While the war with Holland was in progress London suffered two great calamities. In the summer of 1665 the plague, which at that period always was lurking in the suburbs and in the undrained and narrow alleys, spread over the city and in six months destroyed the lives of one hundred thousand of its inhabitants; and grass grew in streets that had been the busy marts of trade. Early in September, 1666, a great fire which raged three days reduced two-thirds of the city to ashes, destroying thirteen thousand dwellings and ninety churches, and leaving two hundred thousand of the population utterly destitute. This latter calamity was a blessing in disguise, as it destroyed the

filthy sections of the city still infected with the plague; and in time well-drained streets and more commodious dwellings had taken the place of narrow lanes and wretched hovels. Among the buildings destroyed was St. Paul's Cathedral; and the rebuilding of this splendid edifice was the work of the great architect, Sir Christopher Wren.

**Licentiousness of King Charles II.**

These awful calamities had no effect on the king, who all the time was plunging deeper and deeper into luxury, extravagance and vice. He misused the money which Parliament had granted him for the prosecution of the war with the Dutch Republic, lavishing it upon his worthless favorites and his mistresses, thus leaving his ships to decay, while their unpaid crews mutinied. Charles II. is charged with having brought on this war for the sole purpose of obtaining money for his vile pastimes.

**Franco-Dutch Alliance.**

In January, 1666, King Louis XIV. of France entered into an alliance with Holland and declared war against England, sending six thousand men to aid the Dutch, who also had the alliance of Denmark. The Dutch fleet defeated the English fleet in a severe battle of four days off the North Foreland, June 11–14, 1666; but the English navy afterward won a victory over the Dutch. During the progress of the negotiations for peace in 1667 the Dutch fleet under De Ruyter, taking advantage of the weakened condition of the English navy in consequence of the misappropriation of the funds voted by Parliament, sailed boldly up the Thames and the Medway, burned many ships at Chatham, bombarded and captured Sheerness and threatened London, whose inhabitants heard the roar of foreign guns for the first time.

**Battle of North Foreland.**

**Dutch Fleet in the Thames.**

**Peace of Breda.**

Louis XIV. of France, who only wanted the two great maritime powers to exhaust each other, now deserted the Dutch Republic; and peace was signed at Breda, in Holland, July 31, 1667, thus ending this second naval war between England and Holland. By the Peace of Breda, the English retained the provinces of New York and New Jersey, in North America, which they had conquered from the Dutch; while the Dutch retained Surinam, or Dutch Guiana, in South America, and the island of Polerone, in the Moluccas. The treaty also modified the Navigation Act so far that all merchandise coming down the Rhine was permitted to be imported into England in Dutch vessels—a measure which gave the Dutch control of much of the commerce of Germany.

**Fall, Disgrace and Exile of the Earl of Clarendon.**

The English people held the Earl of Clarendon, their upright Prime Minister, responsible for their humiliation and disgrace in consequence of the disasters to their arms in the war with Holland; and, though he had been the faithful friend of Charles II. during the latter's exile, he wearied his ungrateful king by his virtues as much as he did the English people by his opposition to popular rights. Both court and

Parliament therefore agreed that this great statesman should be the victim of the popular displeasure. The Earl of Clarendon was accordingly disgraced and driven from office in 1667, and was impeached by the Commons. He fled to France, where he passed the remainder of his days in exile, during which he wrote his famous *History of the Rebellion*. His youngest daughter, Anne Hyde, married the king's brother James, Duke of York, and was the mother of Mary and Anne, afterward Queens of England.

**The Cabal Ministry.**

After the disgrace of Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, a new Ministry was formed, known as the *Cabal*, from the initials of the names of the five noblemen who composed it—Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington and Lauderdale. The word *Cabal* had previously been used to signify a Cabinet; but so corrupt was this famous, or infamous, Cabal of Charles II. that the word has ever since been applied to cliques of political tricksters. Ashley Cooper was the ablest statesman of the Cabal Ministry. Sir Thomas Clifford and the Earls of Arlington and Lauderdale were men of less ability. The Duke of Buckingham, the "witty duke," was the king's vile associate in debauchery.

**Triple Alliance against Louis XIV. of France.**

The first action of the Cabal Ministry was honorable. Through the mediation of Sir William Temple with De Witt, the Grand Pensionary, or Prime Minister of the Dutch Republic, a *Triple Alliance* was formed by England, Holland and Sweden in January, 1668, to check the ambitious schemes of Louis XIV. of France, who had begun a war against Spain for the purpose of extending the north-eastern frontier of France to the Rhine by wresting the Spanish Netherlands and Franche-Comté from the dominion of the feeble King Charles II. of Spain. This Triple Alliance of England, Holland and Sweden forced the King of France to relinquish his ambitious designs by the Peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1668, contrary to the personal wishes of the English king.

**Peace of Aix la Chapelle.**

**The Disgraceful Treaty of Dover.**

But King Charles II. of England and his Cabal Ministry soon descended from the high position which they had assumed as the protectors and defenders of Charles II. of Spain against the grasping ambition of Louis XIV. of France. The action which brands Charles II. of England and the Cabal with the deepest infamy was a secret treaty which they negotiated with Louis XIV. at Dover, May 22, 1670, by which the English monarch agreed to become a Roman Catholic and also the French king's ally in a war against Holland, in return for an annual pension of three million francs. This disgraceful Treaty of Dover stipulated that the King of England should announce his adoption of Roman Catholicism as soon as it was prudent to do so, and that Louis XIV. should furnish him with six thousand French

troops in case his change of religion should cause any popular outbreak in England.

**England's Humiliation.**

The Treaty of Dover placed England in the lowest depths of humiliation. Under Queen Elizabeth she had been second only to Spain, if to any of the great powers of Europe. With the accession of the House of Stuart in 1603 she descended to a secondary rank. The eight years of Oliver Cromwell's vigorous administration raised her again to a commanding position among the nations of the world; and an English ambassador who resided at the French court, both during the Commonwealth and during the reign of Charles II., asserted that he was treated with far greater respect as the representative of Cromwell than as the plenipotentiary of Charles II., though the latter was the cousin of Louis XIV.

**Third Naval War with the Dutch Republic.**

Conformably to the Treaty of Dover, Charles II. of England commenced hostilities against the Dutch Republic on the sea, in 1672, as the ally of the French king. The principal English naval commanders in this war were the famous Prince Rupert, Lord Sandwich and the king's brother James, Duke of York. The Dutch navy gained several victories over the combined fleets of England and France.

**Battle of Solebay.**

In the battle of Solebay, May 28, 1672, the Dutch fleet under De Ruyter gained a brilliant victory over the united English and French fleets. Lord Sandwich was blown up and perished with his entire crew, and the Duke of York narrowly escaped a similar fate.

**Declaration of Indulgence.**

In 1672, just before the commencement of this last war with Holland, King Charles II. had issued a *Declaration of Indulgence*, establishing the principle of religious toleration to all sects in England. This royal edict liberated thousands of Puritans who had pined in prison for many years. John Bunyan left the cell which he had occupied in Bedford jail for twelve years. Twelve thousand Quakers were among the liberated. The English people generally distrusted the king's motives in issuing the Declaration of Indulgence, believing that it was simply the initiative in a scheme to restore the Roman Catholics to office and to reëstablish Roman Catholicism as the state religion of England. Parliament's persistent refusal to vote supplies forced Charles II. to withdraw this edict of toleration during the same year, 1672.

**Test Act.**

Though Charles II. outwardly conformed to the Episcopal Church, he was believed to be a Roman Catholic at heart; and his brother James, Duke of York, was an avowed Catholic. The more the Stuarts favored Roman Catholicism, the more firmly did the English people and Parliament adhere to Protestantism; and, almost as soon as the Declaration of Indulgence had been recalled, the two Houses of Parliament followed up their advantage by passing the *Test Act* early in 1673,

requiring all civil and military officers in the English service to take the Oath of Supremacy, which contained a denial of the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church and an affirmation of the doctrines of the State Church of England.

Resignation of Roman Catholic Officials.

In obedience to this act, the Duke of York resigned his commission as Lord High Admiral; and his resignation was followed by hundreds of others in the military and naval service, thus showing to what an extent Roman Catholics had already been appointed to office, and confirming the previous popular suspicions of the king's Roman Catholic tendencies.

Anti-war Feeling.

When the disgraceful Treaty of Dover became known, the people of England felt themselves basely betrayed by their king. So unpopular was this war in England that Parliament refused to vote supplies to carry it on. The infamous Cabal Ministry was broken up in 1673; and a new Cabinet under Sir Thomas Osborne, Earl of Danby, held the reins of power until 1678; while Ashley Cooper, Earl of Shaftesbury, who had been dismissed from the office of Chancellor, became the leader of the popular party.

Earls of Danby and Shaftesbury.

Peace with Holland.

The great opposition of the English people and Parliament forced Charles II. to renounce his alliance with the King of France and to make peace with Holland in February, 1674; but Charles II. still maintained his secret treaty with Louis XIV. and still rendered him such services as might entitle him to his annual pension, although the English people were clamoring for war with France in the interest of the Dutch Republic.

Royal Secret Treaty.

Titus Oates and His Story of a "Popish Plot."

Widespread fear and distrust now prevailed throughout England. The course of Charles II. had aroused a suspicion that he and Louis XIV. of France had entered into a secret plot to ruin English freedom and to make England a Catholic country. In this excited state of public feeling, in 1678, when the English people were ready to credit any wild tale, Titus Oates, an infamous impostor and adventurer, spread rumors of a "Popish Plot" to assassinate King Charles II., burn London, massacre all the Protestants in England, and place the Duke of York on the English throne on condition that he should hold the kingdom as the Pope's vassal.

Titus Oates's Fabrications and Perjuries.

Titus Oates had been a Baptist preacher, a curate, a navy chaplain; and, after being left penniless by his infamous character, he sought bread by becoming a Catholic, and was admitted into the Order of Jesuits at Valladolid and St. Omer. While in Spain he heard of the secret Jesuit meetings in London; and after being expelled from the order for misconduct he invented his story of the "Popish Plot," made up of the basest falsehoods; but the fears of the English people had destroyed their power of judgment. Oates made affidavit of the truth

of his story before Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey, a London magistrate. In the midst of this excitement, the correspondence of Edward Coleman, secretary of the Duchess of York, was seized. The panic was heightened when Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey was found dead in a field near London, and it was assumed that Jesuits had murdered him to silence disclosures. A solemn funeral added to the public agitation.

**Anti-Catholic Panic in England.**

The murder was like a spark in a powder magazine. All England was in a frenzy of excitement. Both Houses of Parliament ordered an investigation, in which the Earl of Shaftesbury took the lead. Oates made fresh depositions charging five Catholic Lords with complicity in the plot, and these five accused Lords were committed to the Tower, while two thousand suspected persons were hurried to prison. The thirty thousand Catholics in London were ordered to leave the city. The train-bands were called to arms, and patrols paraded the streets of London to guard against a Catholic rising.

**Exclusion Act.**

The Earl of Shaftesbury caused a bill to be rushed through both Houses of Parliament, in spite of the fierce opposition of the royalists, excluding Catholics from membership in either House—an exclusion which remained in force a century and a half. This exclusion had been aimed at the Duke of York, but the Earl of Shaftesbury was defeated by a proviso exempting the duke from its provisions.

**William Bedloe and Other Perjured Informers.**

The offer of a reward for fresh testimony brought forward another miscreant named William Bedloe, whose stories were more startling than those of Titus Oates. Bedloe testified under oath that a Catholic army was about to land in England to massacre the Protestants. Oates had the insolence to accuse even the queen, at the bar of the House of Lords, with knowledge of the plot to murder her husband. These fresh charges produced a fresh panic. The arrested Catholic Lords were ordered to be impeached. The arrest of every Catholic in England was ordered. Rewards promised for additional information brought forward a multitude of equally infamous spies and informers, who vied with each other in circulating some fresh rumor more exciting and atrocious than the last.

**Another Anti-Catholic Panic.**

**Execution of Many Innocent Roman Catholics.**

The trial and execution of James Coleman began a series of trials, convictions and executions which followed each other with indecent haste—judicial murders which are remembered even now with horror. The perjured testimony of Oates and Bedloe sent many innocent Catholics to the scaffold, all of whom died protesting their innocence to the very last. The most eminent of the victims thus offered up to satisfy the public demand for Catholic blood was Lord Stafford, in December, 1680.

**Oates's Reward.**

The villain Titus Oates became the most distinguished man in England. He strutted about in lawn sleeves like those of a bishop,

had a guard for his protection, and received an adequate pension. Fresh informers were brought forward to swear to the existence of a fresh plot. Gigantic torch-light processions paraded the streets of London, and the effigy of the Pope was burned amid the wild outcry of the excited populace.

Continued Anti-Catholic Alarm.

The English ambassador at Paris, Edward Montague, returned home upon quarreling with the Prime Minister, the Earl of Danby; obtained a seat in the House of Commons; and, in spite of the seizure of his papers, laid on the table of the House the dispatch which had been sent to Louis XIV., demanding payment of the English king's services to France during the late negotiations. The Commons were thunderstruck. As the Earl of Danby's name was signed to the dispatch, he was at once impeached on a charge of high treason. Charles II. was at the Earl of Shaftesbury's mercy; and, in order to prevent the disclosure of the secrets of his disgraceful foreign policy, the king agreed to the Earl of Shaftesbury's demand for a dissolution of the Cavalier Parliament and the election of a new Parliament, along with the dismissal of the Earl of Danby's Ministry and the appointment of a new Cabinet, in consideration of which the Earl of Shaftesbury dropped the impeachment proceedings against the Earl of Danby. Thus ended the Cavalier Parliament, which had existed seventeen years, A. D. 1661–1678.

Fall of the Earl of Danby's Ministry and Dissolution of the Cavalier Parliament.

The new Parliament, in which the popular party had a majority, convened in March, 1679. The king then redeemed his pledge by dismissing the Earl of Danby and appointing a new Ministry from the popular party with the Earl of Shaftesbury at its head.

Ministry of the Earl of Shaftesbury.

This Parliament is famous for having passed the celebrated *Habeas Corpus Act*, the third great statute in the progress of English constitutional liberty, and which effectually prevents arbitrary or prolonged imprisonments. By the provisions of the Habeas Corpus Act no person can be lawfully detained in prison unless he is accused of a specified offense for which he is legally subject to punishment, and it secures a prompt trial of the accused. Every jailer, upon a *writ of habeas corpus*, issued by the judge at the prisoner's demand, must produce his prisoner in court and show the cause of his imprisonment. The Habeas Corpus Act only reaffirms a recognized principle in English law ever since the adoption of Magna Charta; and it is enforced in every country which has derived its ideas of law and justice from England, being adopted in the United States, where it can be suspended only in cases of rebellion or war.

Habeas Corpus Act.

This Parliament also took up an Exclusion Bill, designed to deprive the king's brother James, Duke of York, of his right to succeed to the English throne, and to settle the succession on James's daughter Mary,

Exclusion Bill.

Dissolution of Parliament.

the wife of Prince William of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, whom she had married in 1677, and who afterward became King William III. of England. This Exclusion Bill passed the House of Commons in May, 1679, but King Charles II. dissolved Parliament in order to prevent the measure from going to the House of Lords.

New Parliament Prorogued and Dissolved.

The election which followed returned a Parliament so unfavorable to the king's wishes that Charles II. prorogued it on the very day when it should have assembled. By repeating this prorogation, Charles II. kept it from meeting for an entire year. When it was finally allowed to convene, in October, 1680, it took up the Exclusion Bill, and was also dissolved. The next Parliament was summoned at Oxford in March, 1681, but it manifested the same spirit as its predecessors, and was dissolved after a session of but seven days.

Petitioners and Abhorrers.

During these contests between Charles II. and Parliament the English people became divided between two parties—the *Petitioners* and the *Abhorrers*—the former resolutely demanding the meeting of Parliament, and the latter expressing their abhorrence of any one who would presume to dictate to the king. The popular party had previously been called the *Country party*, and the party sustaining the king had been designated the *Court party*.

Whigs and Tories.

But the more permanent party names of *Whig* and *Tory* arose about this time also, and these designations have continued almost to the present day, having in recent years given place to the terms *Liberal* and *Conservative*. The Whigs recognized the right to resist any infringement of the liberties of the people on the part of the king; while the Tories maintained the doctrine of *absolute passive obedience*, denying the right of resistance to royal authority under any circumstances whatever. These names were at first applied by each of the parties to its opponent as terms of reproach; certain religious fanatics in Scotland being called *Whigs*, and certain Catholic banditti in Ireland being styled *Tories*. Altered circumstances have made some change in the principles, as well as in the names, of the two great parties in England during the last two centuries; though the one advocates progress and reform, while the other clings with reverence to the traditions of the past.

Result of the "Popish Plot" Story.

It had already been discovered that the entire story of a "Popish Plot" was a pure fabrication. The execution of the innocent Lord Stafford had changed the popular rage against the "Papists" into pity and remorse, so that no more blood was shed in the "Popish Plot." The entire crowd of base adventurers and informers, when they found their infamous occupation gone, passed over to the opposite party, and, by turning state's evidence, contributed to ruin those who had employed them.

Popular Reaction in Favor of King Charles II.

The various real and pretended plots, along with the disreputable course of the Earl of Shaftesbury and the violence of the popular party in Parliament, produced a reaction in the public mind in favor of the king; and the king's dissolution of Parliament and his appeal to the justice of the nation were received with a general outburst of loyalty, April, 1682. The Church rallied to the king, and his royal declaration was read from every pulpit in England; while the universities solemnly decided that "no religion, no law, no fault, no forfeiture" could avail to bar the sacred right of hereditary succession.

Disgrace of the Earl of Shaftesbury.

The new strength of the crown was indicated by the arrest of the Earl of Shaftesbury on a charge of suborning false witnesses to the "Popish Plot." London was still true, however, to the Earl of Shaftesbury. The Middlesex grand jury ignored the bill of his indictment, and his discharge from the Tower was greeted in every street of the city with bonfires and the ringing of bells. But the loyal enthusiasm of the English people received a fresh impulse by the publication of the disgraced Prime Minister's papers, which disclosed the scheme of a secret association for the advancement of the exclusion of the Duke of York, the members of which bound themselves to obey the orders of Parliament even after its prorogation or dissolution by the crown.

Persecution of Exclusionists.

Charles II. boldly pushed his advantages, while the Duke of York returned in triumph to St. James's Palace. A daring breach of custom installed Tories in 1682 as sheriffs of the city of London, and the packed juries which they selected placed every exclusionist at the mercy of the crown. After vain plottings, the Earl of Shaftesbury fled to Holland, where he soon afterward died, January, 1683.

Rye House Plot.

But in 1683 a real Protestant plot was discovered. Several worthless characters had conspired to waylay and shoot King Charles II. and his brother, the Duke of York, as they rode past a certain place known as the Rye House, on their way to the races at Newmarket; but the ruffians were detected and executed. This conspiracy is known as the *Rye House Plot.*

Six Whig Leaders.

Six conspirators of high rank desired a change in the government, though perhaps none of them intended any personal harm to the king. These were the Duke of Monmouth, the king's son by a low-born mistress; Lord William Russell; the Earl of Essex; Lord Howard; Algernon Sidney; and John Hampden, grandson of the illustrious Parliamentary leader in the struggle with Charles I. Russell desired simply the exclusion of the Duke of York from the succession to the English throne, and a return to just government under the reigning king and the existing constitution. Sidney was a republican by principle, and had opposed Cromwell's usurpation as well as the Stuart Restoration, but he was no assassin.

Their Arrest and Punishment.

The plans of these Whig leaders were probably unconnected with the Rye House Plot; but they were arrested on the accusation of one of the conspirators, and their designs were betrayed by one of their number, Lord Howard. The Earl of Essex died in the Tower. Lord William Russell and Algernon Sidney were beheaded. The Duke of Monmouth, who had fled when the conspiracy was first disclosed, was pardoned by his father, the king, and was allowed to appear at court; but he excited the disgust of all parties by his double dealing, and was again exiled.

Lord William Russell's Martyrdom.

The juries which tried and condemned Lord William Russell and Algernon Sidney was packed. Concerning Russell, Hume says: "It was proved that an insurrection had been deliberated on by the prisoner; the surprisal of the guards deliberated but not fully resolved upon; and that an assassination of the king had not once been mentioned or imagined by him." The law was stretched to his condemnation, and his blood was too eagerly desired by the tyrant Charles II. and the bigoted Duke of York to allow of the remission of the sentence of death. He was beheaded in Lincoln's Inn Fields, July 21, 1683, in the forty-second year of his age. His most bitter enemies have testified to his character for sincerity, probity and private worth. His wife secured the admiration of the world by the affectionate zeal and devotion with which she aided her husband, and by the magnanimity with which she bore her loss. She accompanied him into court upon his trial; and when he was refused counsel, and only permitted to have an amanuensis, she assumed that character, thus exciting the sympathy and respect of all who beheld her. Lord William Russell was an ancestor of the late Lord John Russell, the famous English statesman.

Algernon Sidney's Martyrdom.

Algernon Sidney was tried for high treason before the brutal Chief Justice Jeffries. His confederate, Lord Howard, who had turned state's evidence to save himself, was the only witness against him; and, as the law for high treason required two witnesses, the Attorney-General had recourse to an expedient. In defiance of law and common sense, the additional testimony was held to be supplied by extracts from some discourses on government, discovered in manuscript in his closet, though not proved to be his handwriting, which asserted the lawfulness of resisting tyrants, and the preference of a free government to an arbitrary one. Notwithstanding a spirited defense he was pronounced guilty, and was beheaded on Tower Hill, December 7, 1683. As he was dragged on a sledge to the place of execution, one of the multitude called to him: "You never sat on a seat so glorious!" Just before laying his head on the block he handed the sheriff a paper, maintaining the injustice of his condemnation, and ending with a prayer for the "good old cause." He met his sad fate with firmness and constancy, and his

memory has ever since been cherished as that of a martyr to the cause of free government.

**Second Stuart Tyranny.**

While avoiding an open or defiant disregard of the laws, Charles II. proceeded deliberately to make his power absolute, thus inaugurating what has been termed the *Second Stuart Tyranny*, to distinguish it from the *First Stuart Tyranny* under Charles I. from 1629 to 1640, when there was no Parliament. During the last two years of his reign, A. D. 1683–1685, Charles II. was as absolute a monarch as any in Europe. The Test Act excluding Catholics from office was quietly ignored, and the Duke of York was restored to his former position as Lord High Admiral.

**Violent Persecution of Scotch Covenanters.**

In the meantime blood had also flowed in Scotland. The severities of the Earl of Lauderdale as governor of that country had already driven the Covenanters to desperation; and some of them attacked James Sharp, Archbishop of St. Andrews and Primate of Scotland, dragged him from his coach and murdered him upon the public highway in the presence of his daughter, May 3, 1679. Of course this crime injured the cause of the Covenanters more than persecution could have injured it. Their religious meetings were broken up by soldiers; and the Covenanters assembled for worship only in the wildest recesses of the hills, all the men being armed, and sentinels being posted to guard against surprise. The principal stronghold of the Covenanters was the hill country between Lanark and Ayr.

**Outbreak and Overthrow of Covenanters.**

The most brutal of the king's officers in breaking up the meetings of the Covenanters was John Graham of Claverhouse, who massacred men, women and children with the most atrocious cruelty. In May, 1679, he was routed by a band of armed Covenanters whom he had disturbed at their worship, and lost thirty of his troopers. At another time eight thousand Covenanters seized the city of Glasgow; but the king's bastard son, the Duke of Monmouth, with fifteen thousand royal troops, defeated an army of Covenanters in the battle of Bothwell Bridge, in June, 1679, taking twelve hundred of them prisoners, most of whom were transported to the English colonies in North America, where they ended their days.

**Marriages of the Daughters of the Duke of York.**

King Charles II., who had formerly pleased his more extreme Protestant subjects by the marriage of his eldest niece Mary to William, Prince of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, now took a similar step by the espousal of her sister Anne to a brother of King Christian V. of Denmark. These princesses were the only children of the king's brother James, Duke of York, and were in the line of succession to the English and Scottish thrones after their father. Their mother was Anne Hyde, the daughter of the Earl of Clarendon, and the first wife of the Duke of York, as already noticed. After her death the

Duke of York married an Italian princess, Maria Beatrice of Este, daughter of the Duke of Modena.

**Mistresses and Bastards of King Charles II.**

Charles II. had mistress after mistress, and the guilt of these dissolute women was emblazoned to the world by the gift of titles and estates, so that royal bastards were set among the English nobility. The Duke of Monmouth was the son whom Charles II. had with Lucy Walters, and was the ancestor of the Dukes of Buccleugh. The Dukes of Grafton are descended from Charles II. and Barbara Palmer, whom the king created Duchess of Cleveland. The Dukes of St. Albans are the posterity of Charles II. and Nell Gwynn. The Dukes of Richmond are the descendants of the same king and Louise de Querouaille, a French mistress, whom the king created Duchess of Portsmouth, and whom the French court had sent to England to win Charles II. to its interests.

**Freedom of the Press.**

The freedom of the press was secured during the reign of Charles II. This result was accomplished by Parliament's refusal to renew the license law by which a supervision of the press had been maintained.

**New English Colonies in North America.**

During the reign of Charles II. the colonies of the Carolinas in North America were settled by the English under a grant of that territory by the king to the Earl of Clarendon and seven associates. The colonies of New Jersey and Pennsylvania were also settled during this reign; the latter by Quakers under the auspices of William Penn, the son of Admiral Penn, who conquered Jamaica from the Spaniards in 1665 during the period of the Commonwealth, as already noticed. William Penn's justice and brotherly kindness to the natives saved Pennsylvania from the perils and difficulties to which the other English colonies in North America were subject.

**Progress of Science.**

England advanced steadily in industry and wealth during the reign of Charles II., nothwithstanding the civil and political disorders which distracted the kingdom. This reign was a great era in science in England, being the period when Sir Isaac Newton discovered the wondrous natural law which keeps the sun and the planets in their orbits; when Edmund Halley commenced his learned investigations of tides, comets and the earth's magnetism; when Robert Boyle improved the air-pump, and by its aid studied the properties of the atmosphere; when Thomas Hobbes and John Locke discoursed of the human mind, its laws and its relations to matter.

**Royal Society.**

The Royal Society of Science was founded in the year of the Stuart Restoration, and its members were the first Englishmen who engaged in the really scientific study of minerals, plants, birds, fishes and quadrupeds.

**Art and Architecture.**

During this period many foreign painters flourished at the English court, and have left portraits of all its famous men and women. The great fire of London in 1666 gave a new impulse to architecture by

opening a field for the genius of Sir Christopher Wren, who designed the present magnificent Cathedral of St. Paul's and many other churches.

Coffee-houses.

Coffee, tea and chocolate first came into England with the Stuart Restoration, and coffee-houses were first established in London during the reign of Charles II. These establishments became celebrated as the places where political affairs were thoroughly discussed, and where the opinions of wits were eagerly heard and repeated by multitudes of listeners. Nobles and gentry living in the country frequently engaged correspondents in London to inform them of current matters of interest in government and society; and by means of written or printed *newsletters* the talk of the capital was repeated throughout the kingdom—sometimes to the discomfort of His Majesty's Ministers, who made some fruitless efforts to stop these currents of public opinion at their source.

Newsletters.

Lack of Means of Communication.

It has been asserted that Charles I. would never have rushed to his fate with such blind persistence if railways, telegraphs and newspapers had existed in his time as they do in our own day. The king was utterly ignorant of the temper of his subjects. The means of communication were worse than they are in Turkey at the present time. Even at the end of the seventeenth century, public roads in England could scarcely be distinguished from the meadows and the marshes which they traversed. Six horses were required to draw a coach through the deep mud, and all the public highways were infested by robbers.

Condition of London.

The population of London at the time of the death of Charles II. is estimated to have been a half million. The streets were narrow, dirty and unpaved, and not lighted until the last year of that king's reign; and they were infested by ruffians and robbers, against whom the aged and feeble watchmen were unable to afford any protection.

Good Nature of King Charles II.

In spite of all his faults, King Charles II. was an easy-going, good-natured sovereign, plodding quietly along in the path of his pleasures, even when the most exciting events were in progress around him. His excessive good nature and his sportive manners, and the freedom and gayety of his court, have acquired for him the well-merited title of the "Merry Monarch." One of his courtiers portrayed him thus in the following epigram:

> "Here lies our sovereign lord the king,
> Whose word no man relies on;
> Who never said a foolish thing,
> And never did a wise one."

When this was shown to the king he retorted in his pleasant way: "That may be very true; for my words are my own, but my acts are my Ministers'."

His Death.

Early in 1685 Charles II. was seized with an epileptic attack; and, after lingering a few days, he died on February 6th of that year in the fifty-fifth year of his age and the twenty-fifth of his reign. Although he made no public avowal of Roman Catholicism, he was at his own request attended by a Roman Catholic priest in his dying moments.

James II., A. D. 1685–1688.

As Charles II. died without legitimate children, his brother, the Duke of York, succeeded him as King of England, Scotland and Ireland without immediate opposition, thus becoming James II. of England and James VII. of Scotland, February, 1685. During his brother's reign James had acquired considerable distinction as a naval commander, and England had been proud of him as her sailor prince. All efforts to exclude him from the English throne on account of his pronounced Roman Catholicism had failed; and, in spite of the recent agitations, the English people received with joyful confidence the pledge which he had made in the presence of his Council, at its first meeting after the death of Charles II., to uphold and maintain the Established Church and to observe and execute the laws of the realm.

His Accession.

Punishment of Titus Oates.

Titus Oates was now brought to trial for his perjuries; and upon conviction he was sentenced to be whipped through the city during two days, to stand in the pillory five times a year and to be imprisoned for life.

Huguenot Immigrants.

In the first year of the reign of James II. thousands of French Huguenots, who fled from their native land to escape the dreadful persecution which King Louis XIV. inaugurated that year by the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, settled in England and her North American colonies, establishing there those fine manufactures for which the Huguenots were celebrated The many French names among the silk-weavers of Spitalfields, near London, shows their descent from the French exiles for conscience sake, who first introduced that industry into England. Among the famous names in England in our own times are those of James and Harriet Martineau and Mr. Labouchere, whose ancestors were among these Huguenot exiles two centuries ago.

Popular Disappointment in James II.

The high expectations that the English people had formed of James II. at his accession were soon doomed to the most profound disappointment; and the popular enthusiasm gave way to gloom, and gloom was finally succeeded by horror. James II. was not a simple lover of ease and pleasure like Charles II. had been; but he showed that he was more indifferent to public sentiment, more defiant of the law, more malignant toward men of other views.

His First Arbitrary Acts.

Within three days after his accession, and in opposition to the advice of his Council, he levied customs without the consent of Parliament. The first elections during his reign were carried by fraud and violence

in the king's interest. The new Parliament, utterly subservient to the royal will, approved the king's levy and voted him a life income of two million pounds. This Parliament's action on the question of religion was moulded to suit His Majesty's pleasure.

**Persecution and Martyrdom of Scotch Covenanters.**

The Parliament of Scotland was as servile to the king as was that of England, and it made the laws against the Covenanters more rigorous. One of these severe laws authorized the soldiers to put to death at once all Scots who refused to take the *Oath of Abjuration*, which required them to repudiate all sympathy with the declarations issued by the Covenanters in opposition to the royal authority. Among the many who were put to death for refusing to take this oath were two women—Margaret Maclauchlan and Margaret Wilson—who were tied to stakes in Solway Frith and drowned by the rising tide. The royal troops treated the Covenanters with the most shocking brutality, while the Covenanters exhibited the most heroic courage and firmness in their trials and sufferings. Another act of the Scottish Parliament at the beginning of this reign made attendance upon a conventicle a crime punishable with death.

**Rebellion, Overthrow and Execution of the Marquis of Argyle in Scotland.**

During the same year, 1685, the Marquis of Argyle, the son of the great Marquis of Argyle, the leader of the Covenanters, who was executed in May, 1661, returned to Scotland from his exile and made an ill-organized effort to rouse the clans to resistance to royal oppression. This revolt of the Marquis of Argyle in Scotland was intended to be simultaneous with the rebellion of the Duke of Monmouth, the illegitimate son of Charles II., in England; but the assembled army of the Scotch clans was dispersed without striking a blow; and the Marquis of Argyle was captured while attempting to escape, and was beheaded at Edinburgh. The royal troops wasted the revolted section with fire and sword, and many members of the rebellious clans were cruelly mutilated and then transported to America, where they passed their remaining days.

**Rebellion of the Duke of Monmouth in England.**

The rebellion of the Duke of Monmouth in England, equally as rash as that of the Marquis of Argyle in Scotland, was undertaken for the dethronement of James II. and for the assertion of the duke's own title to the English crown; but its results were more disastrous than the attempted revolt in Scotland. The Duke of Monmouth had been persuaded by his adherents to make his rash invasion of England; and he accused his royal uncle of being "a traitor, a tyrant, an assassin and a Popish usurper," charging him with being the author of the great fire in London and of the murder of Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey and the Earl of Essex, and with having poisoned Charles II. The Duke of Monmouth was so beloved by the English people that, though he had only a hundred followers when he landed in England, he was

soon at the head of six thousand, and was obliged to dismiss many for lack of arms.

Battle of Sedgemoor.

The Duke of Monmouth was thoroughly defeated by the royal army at Sedgemoor, near Bridgewater, in Somersetshire, July 6, 1685—the last battle fought in England. He was found lying in a ditch, exhausted with hunger and fatigue. After many entreaties he was admitted to his royal uncle's presence; and, prostrating himself on his knees, he piteously begged with bitter tears that his life might be spared; but he refused to purchase his safety by betraying his partisans. Summoning his courage, he faced death on the scaffold, and his head fell by the stroke of the executioner's ax, July 15, 1685. His deluded followers were hunted down like wild beasts.

Execution of the Duke of Monmouth.

Second English Reign of Terror.

These unfortunate attempts at rebellion in England and Scotland only strengthened the royal power, as they kindled a new sentiment of loyalty in the minds and hearts of the English people, while they also furnished a plausible pretext for a large increase of the English army. The most severe measures were adopted against the rebels, and the Second Stuart Tyranny before long developed into the *Second English Reign of Terror.*

Jeffries's Campaign, or the Bloody Assize.

James II. exacted a most bitter vengeance for the Duke of Monmouth's misguided rebellion. A Circuit Court, under the presidency of Lord Chief Justice Jeffries, was organized in the rebellious counties of England; and the brutal action of this tribunal was better suited to the darkest of the Dark Ages than to the enlightenment of the seventeenth century. This court has been variously styled in history as *Jeffries's Campaign*, the *Bloody Assize* and the *Second English Reign of Terror.* The pages of history can be searched in vain for a name that has descended to a more immortal infamy than has that of Judge Jeffries. The mind recoils with the deepest horror from the merciless judgments of this fiend against the innocent and the guilty, and from his heartless levity in the midst of the sufferings which he inflicted.

"Kirke's Lambs."

Chief Justice Jeffries had a fit associate in his atrocious cruelties in Colonel Kirke, who had learned his inhumanity from the Moors about Tangier. At the head of a company of troopers as inhuman as himself and ironically called "Kirke's lambs," this brutal officer was charged with the apprehension and execution of "Monmouth's rebels." Wherever Colonel Kirke and his "lambs" appeared men were hurried off to the gallows without even an inquiry as to their guilt or innocence, and he is said to have insulted their death-agonies by rude jests. It is said that "Kirke's lambs" were accustomed to entertaining themselves during their drunken carousals by having their prisoners hung on high gibbets in front of their windows, and having the drums beat to furnish music to the dance of the quivering bodies. As in the

ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL

From a Photograph

Wars of the Roses, the heads and limbs of those executed were posted in conspicuous places to strike terror into the hearts of the inhabitants. Colonel Kirke's military executions were about as savage as Chief Justice Jeffries's judicial murders.

Knight's Account.

The English historian, Charles Knight, in his excellent *History of England,* gives the following account of the barbarities of Jeffries and Kirke: "The pitchy cauldron was constantly boiling in the Assize towns to preserve the heads and limbs from corruption that were to be distributed through the beautiful Western Country. As the leaves were dropping in that autumn of 1685, the great oak of many a village green was decorated with a mangled quarter. On every tower of the Somersetshire churches a ghastly head looked down upon those who gathered together for the worship of the God of love. The directing-post for the traveler was elevated into a gibbet. The laborer, returning home beneath the harvest-moon, hurried past the body suspended in its creaking grimmaces (chains). The eloquent historian of this reign of terror has attested from his own childish recollections that 'within the last forty years, peasants in some districts well knew the accursed spots and passed them unwillingly after sunset.'"

Lady Alice Lisle and Mrs. Elizabeth Gaunt.

Among the victims of Chief Justice Jeffries's cruelty were two noble and generous women whose only crime was their womanly charity in giving food and lodging to fleeing rebels. One was Lady Alice Lisle, seventy years of age, the widow of one of the members of the High Court of Justice which tried and condemned Charles I. She was beheaded at Winchester. The other was Mrs. Elizabeth Gaunt, who was burned to death at Tyburn.

The "Bloody Circuit."

Three hundred and fifty rebels were hanged in the "Bloody Circuit" as Jeffries made his way through Dorsetshire and Somersetshire. More than eight hundred were sold into slavery in the West Indies. A larger number were whipped and imprisoned. Even the cold heart of General Churchill, to whose energy the royal victory at Sedgemoor had been largely due, was shocked at the ruthlessness with which the king turned a deaf ear to all appeals for mercy. Said the general, as he struck the chimney-piece on which he leaned: "This marble is not harder than the king's heart."

General Churchill Shocked.

Boast of Jeffries.

Those who were spared bought their lives only with their entire possessions; and Chief Justice Jeffries returned to London enriched by the pardons which he had sold, and boasted that he had "hanged more for high treason than all the judges of England since William the Conqueror." His royal master rewarded him for his cruelties by creating him Chancellor.

We are told that even the queen herself and her maids of honor made merchandise of free-born English subjects, begging the lives of the

Heartless Conduct of the Queen and Her Maids of Honor.

condemned that they might increase their wealth by selling these unfortunates into slavery in the West Indies. Even the innocent and thoughtless girls who had presented an embroidered banner to the Duke of Monmouth when he entered their native town of Taunton would have suffered a similar fate had they not been ransomed by the payment of two thousand pounds to the maids of honor.

James II. and His Roman Catholic Reactionary Policy.

The ease with which the rebellion of the Duke of Monmouth had been suppressed, and the evident loyalty of the English people toward their king, encouraged James II. to execute the policy which he had resolved upon from the very beginning of his reign—the reëstablishment of Roman Catholicism as the state religion of England. The standing army having been increased from ten thousand to twenty thousand men, the king filled the most important military offices with Roman Catholics in utter defiance of the Test Act. He dismissed Lord Halifax for refusing to consent to a plan for the repeal of that statute.

James II. and Parliament.

James II. haughtily declared to Parliament in 1686 that his grant of commissions to Catholics must not be questioned, whether legal or not. He also made a demand on Parliament for supplies for his increased army. Though both Houses of Parliament had large Tory majorities, their alarm at popery and at a standing army was stronger than their loyalty. The Commons, by a majority of a single vote, refused the grant of supplies until the king granted a redress of grievances, and demanded the recall of the illegal commissions to Roman Catholics. The Lords assumed a bolder tone, and the eloquence of Lord Halifax backed the protest of the bishops against any infringement of the Test Act. The king at once prorogued both Houses of Parliament.

James II. and the Courts.

King James II. determined to obtain from the courts what he could not obtain from Parliament. He packed the Court of King's Bench with his own creatures, after dismissing four judges who refused to lend themselves to his plans. The new judges decided in the case of Sir Edward Hales, a Catholic officer in the royal army, that a royal dispensation could be pleaded in bar of the Test Act. The principle laid down by these judges asserted the right of the crown to override the laws; and King James II. applied this principle with a reckless impatience, admitting Catholics into all civil and military offices without restraint, while four Catholic Lords were sworn in as members of the Privy Council.

Monks and Jesuits.

The laws which forbade the presence of Catholic priests in England, or which forbade the open exercise of Catholic worship, were ignored. A gorgeous chapel was opened in St. James's Palace for the king's worship. Monks of the various orders attired in their

respective garbs ostentatiously paraded the streets of London, and even the Jesuits were permitted to establish a crowded school in the old palace of the Savoy. In consequence of a riot on the establishment of a new Catholic chapel in London, a camp of thirteen thousand royal troops was established at Hounslow to overawe the capital.

**James II. and Scotland.**

King James II. also proceeded with vigor to stamp out Protestantism in his other two kingdoms. In Scotland he acted as a pure despot, placing the government of that country in the hands of two Catholic lords, the Earls of Melfort and Perth, and putting a Catholic in command of Edinburgh Castle. Although the Scottish Parliament had been the servile instrument of King Charles II., it boldly refused to pass an act of toleration to Catholics, as recommended by James VII. When the king tempted them to consent by offering them free trade with England they indignantly replied: "Shall we sell our God?" James VII. at once ordered the Scotch judges to treat all laws against Catholics as null and void, and his orders were obeyed. The Earl of Perth was the inventor of the steel thumb-screw, one of James's favorite instruments of torture and conversion.

**The Earl of Tyrconnel's Reactionary Proceedings in Ireland.**

King James II. appointed Richard Talbot, Earl of Tyrconnel, a Catholic lord, to the office of Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. In that country the king's policy threw off even the disguise of law, and by his command Roman Catholics were admitted to the Council and to civil offices. The new Lord Lieutenant reorganized the royal army in Ireland by cashiering all its Protestant officers and by admitting two thousand Catholic Irish into its ranks. As the determined foe of the English and Scotch Protestant settlers in that country, the Earl of Tyrconnel turned every Englishman and every Protestant out of office in Ireland; and in a very short time every Privy Councilor, every judge, every mayor and every alderman is that dependent kingdom was an Irishman and a Roman Catholic.

**James II. and the Church of England.**

In the meantime King James II. had commenced a bold and systematic attack on the Protestant State Church of England. He roughly set aside the statute which abolished the Court of High Commission, which had been passed by the Long Parliament in 1640 and confirmed by the Convention-Parliament which restored the monarchy in 1660. In 1686 the king organized an Ecclesiastical Commission of seven members headed by the infamous Jeffries, with full power over religious affairs in England.

**Defiant Attitude of the English Clergy.**

The king had forbidden the clergy to preach against popery, and ordered Bishop Compton of London to suspend a vicar who set this order at defiance. The bishop refused, and was punished for his disobedience by suspension from office. But the pressure of the Ecclesiastical Commission only drove the clergy to a bolder defiance

of the royal will. Sermons against superstition were preached from every pulpit; and the two most celebrated divines of the time—Tillotson and Stillingfleet—headed a host of controversialists, who scattered pamphlets and tracts from the public press, which teemed with the indignant protests of the English people.

**James II. and the Universities of Cambridge and Oxford.**

King James II. next made an effort to place the great universities of England under Catholic control. A monk presented himself at Cambridge with royal letters recommending him for the degree of Master of Arts, but was rejected on his refusal to sign the Articles of Faith of the Church of England, and the Vice Chancellor was dismissed from office as a punishment for the rejection of the monk. The Master of University College at Oxford, who professed conversion to Catholicism, was authorized by the king to retain his post in defiance of the law. The king also appointed Massey, a Roman Catholic, as Dean of Christ Church College at Oxford.

**Defiant Attitude of the Fellows of Magdalen College.**

In 1687 James II. recommended a Catholic of infamous life, named Farmer, for the position of President of Magdalen College at Oxford, although he was not even qualified by statute for the office. The Fellows of the college remonstrated; and when their remonstrance was rejected they chose one of their own number, named Hough, as their President. The Ecclesiastical Commission declared the election void; and the king then recommended Bishop Parker of Oxford, a Catholic at heart and the meanest of his courtiers, for the vacant Presidency of Magdalen College. But the Fellows obstinately adhered to their chosen President. The king at once visited Oxford and summoned them to his presence, and lectured them as they knelt before him like schoolboys. Said he: "I am king; I will be obeyed! Go to your chapel this instant, and elect the bishop! Let those who refuse look to it, for they shall feel the whole weight of my hand!"

**Violent Action against Fellows.**

The Fellows calmly disregarded the king's threats; but a special commission visited the university, pronounced Hough an intruder, set aside his appeal to the law, burst open the door of the President's house to install Parker in his place, and deprived the Fellows of their fellowships upon their refusal to submit. The Demies were also expelled when they refused to submit. Parker died immediately after his installation, and was succeeded by Bonaventure Giffard, a Catholic bishop in partibus; and twelve Catholics were admitted to fellowships in one day.

**Blind Obstinacy of James II.**

All England was now in a ferment; but King James II. possessed the insane obstinacy of the Stuart race, and pressed swiftly forward to his doom, turning a deaf ear to the entreaties of his Catholic friends, and even to Pope Innocent XI., who warned the reckless king, through the Papal Nuncio in England, not to do anything rashly and to govern

England in accordance with her laws for the present. The king, however, persisted in his policy; and his course was as reckless in the State as it was in the Church.

Reorganization of the Ministry and Privy Council.

James II. silenced Parliament by repeated prorogations, and finally dissolved it, so that he was left unchecked in his defiance of the law. The members of the Ministry and the Privy Council who did not share his religious views were removed to make way for Catholics. Among those thus removed were his two brothers-in-law, the sons of the great Earl of Clarendon. One of these, Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, had been Lord Lieutenant of Ireland; and the other, Laurence Hyde, Earl of Rochester, had been First Lord of the Treasury. Lord Bellasys, a Catholic, became First Lord of the Treasury; and Lord Arundell, another Catholic, became Lord Privy Seal. Petre, a Jesuit, was called to the Privy Council. The Papal Nuncio was received in state at Windsor.

James II. and the Duke of Somerset.

Although the great Tory nobles were staunch adherents of the crown, they were as resolute Englishmen in their hatred of mere tyranny as were the Whigs. The young Duke of Somerset, upon being ordered to introduce the Papal Nuncio into the Presence Chamber, replied: "I am advised that I can not obey Your Majesty without breaking the law." The king asked angrily: "Do you not know that I am above the law?" The duke retorted: "Your Majesty may be, but I am not." The Duke of Somerset was dismissed from office, but the spirit of resistance spread rapidly.

James II. and His Declaration of Indulgence.

In spite of the king's letters, the governors of the Charter House, numbering among them some of the greatest English nobles, refused to admit a Catholic to the benefits of this institution. The most devoted Tories murmured when James II. required apostasy to the Protestant State Church of England as an evidence of their loyalty to the king. In fact he was soon obliged to abandon all hope of bringing the Church or the Tories over to his will. Following the example of his brother, he published a Declaration of Indulgence in 1687, annulling the penal laws against Protestant Dissenters, or Noncomformists, and Roman Catholics alike, and abrogating every statute which imposed a test as a qualification for office in Church or State; but most of the Noncomformists, following the example of their great leaders—Baxter, Howe and Bunyan among them—fully understood the king's motives, and remained true to the cause of freedom by refusing to accept an Indulgence which could be purchased only by the subversion of the law.

The failure of this Declaration of Indulgence only spurred James II. to an effort to obtain the repeal of the Test Act from Parliament itself. But he was very well aware that no free Parliament could be

He Obtains a Compliant House of Lords.

induced to consent to its repeal. True, the king could pack the House of Lords by creating a sufficient number of new peers. Said his Minister, Lord Sunderland, to General Churchill: "Your troop of horse shall be called up into the House of Lords." It was, however, not so easy to obtain a compliant House of Commons.

Fails to Procure a Compliant House of Commons.

The king directed the Lord Lieutenants to bring about such a "regulation" of the governing body in boroughs as would insure the return of candidates to the House of Commons pledged to repeal the Test Act, and to question every magistrate in their respective counties concerning his vote. Half of them refused at once; and many great nobles—the Earls of Oxford, Shrewsbury, Dorset, Derby, Pembroke, Rutland, Abergavenny, Thanet, Northampton and Abingdon—were immediately dismissed from their Lord Lieutenancies. When the justices were questioned they merely replied that they would vote according to their consciences, and send members to Parliament who would protect the Protestant religion. After repeated "regulations," it was seen that it was impossible to organize a corporate body which would return members to Parliament willing to obey the king. All thought of a compliant Parliament had to be abandoned; and even the most bigoted Catholic courtiers advised moderation on the king's part at this evidence of the stubborn opposition which James II. must prepare to encounter from the nobles, the gentry and the trading classes.

New Declaration of Indulgence.

Finally an arbitrary act on the king's part for the first time aroused the clergy of the Established Church, who had been preaching Sunday after Sunday the doctrine of absolute passive obedience to the worst of kings. On April 27, 1688, James II. issued a new Declaration of Indulgence, abolishing all religious tests for office and all penal laws against Protestant Dissenters, or Nonconformists, and Roman Catholics. The king ordered every clergyman in England to read this Declaration to his congregation during divine service on two successive Sundays. With such unanimity did the English clergy refuse to be the instruments of their own humiliation that only two hundred out of ten thousand clergymen complied with the king's order. The Declaration of Indulgence was read in but four of the London churches, and in these the congregations rushed out of church when the reading of it commenced. So determined were the English people to resist the insane efforts of their bigoted king to overthrow Protestantism.

Protest of Archbishop Sancroft and Six Other Bishops.

The bishops of the Church of England went with the rest of the clergy in opposing the king's illegal measures. Several days before the appointed Sunday, Dr. William Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury and Primate of England, called the bishops together; and the archbishop and the six bishops who were able to appear at Lambeth signed a mild protest to the king declining to publish an illegal

Declaration of Indulgence. When Archbishop Sancroft presented the paper to James II. the king exclaimed: "It is a standard of rebellion!"

Their Committal to the Tower.

James II. at once resolved to wreak his vengeance on the prelates who signed the protest. He ordered the Ecclesiastical Commission to dismiss them from their sees, but the Commission shrank from complying with the king's command in this matter. The Chancellor, Lord Jeffries, advised a prosecution for libel as the easier method of punishment; and Archbishop Sancroft and the six bishops were committed to the Tower upon their refusal to furnish bail. They went to prison amid the applause of a vast multitude, while the sentinels knelt for their blessing as they entered the gates of the Tower, and the soldiers of the garrison drank their healths. One of these imprisoned prelates was Bishop Thomas Ken, the author of the familiar Doxology: "Praise God, from Whom all Blessings Flow."

Their Trial and Acquittal.

So menacing was the temper of the English nation that King James II. was advised by his Ministers to give way; but the danger only increased the bigoted king's obstinacy. Said he: "Indulgence ruined my father." The Primate and the six bishops were brought before the bar of the Court of King's Bench as criminals, June 29, 1688. Though the judges were the subservient instruments of the crown, and though the jury had been packed to convict, judges and jury alike were overawed by the indignation of the English people at large; and Archbishop Sancroft and the six bishops were acquitted the next day, June 30, 1688. As soon as the foreman of the jury had pronounced the words "Not guilty," a deafening shout of applause burst forth from the overjoyed multitude; and horsemen galloped along over every road to spread the glad tidings of the acquittal throughout the kingdom.

Public Rejoicing in Consequence.

The night of the day of acquittal, June 30, 1688, was a memorable one in London. The populace vented their joy at the verdict of the jury in the most enthusiastic demonstrations. The entire city was illuminated in honor of the Primate and the six bishops, while bells were loudly rung from every belfry, bonfires blazed in every street, rockets lighted up the heavens. The army which James II. had quartered at Hounslow to overawe the capital manifested its sympathy with the people by joining in their acclamations. The king was at Hounslow when he was informed of the acquittal of the seven prelates, and as he rode from the camp to return to London he heard a great shout behind him. The startled king asked: "What is that?" The reply was: "It is nothing—only the soldiers are glad that the bishops are acquitted." The king responded: "Do you call that nothing?"

James II. deserted by His Army.

The shout of the soldiers at Hounslow plainly told James II. that he had lost the sympathy of the army, which had been his only hope; and the king was now thoroughly conscious that he was left utterly deserted in his realm. The nobility, the gentry, the bishops and the clergy of the Church of England, the universities, every lawyer, every merchant, every farmer, his very soldiers, had now forsaken him. His most devoted Catholic friends urged him to give way before the sentiment of the English nation so universally and resolutely manifested; but to give way was to reverse every act which he had done as king, and James II. was in no mood to reverse his acts.

Subversion of Legal Authority.

The king's arbitrary acts and usurpations had subverted all legal government in England. Sheriffs, mayors and magistrates appointed by the crown in defiance of Parliamentary statute were no real officers in the eyes of the law. Members returned to Parliament by such illegal officers could constitute no legal Parliament. Scarcely a Minister of the Crown or a Privy Councilor exercised any legal authority. To such a pass had James II. brought things that the reëstablishment of legal government meant the complete reversal of all his acts during the three years of his reign.

The King's Obstinate Persistence.

The king was spurred on only to a more dogged pertinacity by danger and remonstrance. Still undaunted, be broke up the camp at Hounslow and dispersed the troops in distant cantonments. He dismissed the two judges who had favored the acquittal of the Primate and the six accused bishops. He ordered the chancellor of each diocese to report the names of the clergy who failed to read the Declaration of Indulgence.

General Resistance to the King's Measures.

The king's will broke fruitlessly against the sullen resistance which he encountered on all sides. Not a chancellor made any return to the Ecclesiastical Commissioners, and the temper of the English nation cowed the Commissioners into inaction. When the judges who had shown their servility to the crown went on circuit the gentry refused to meet them. But a still fiercer indignation was aroused by the king's determination to replace the English troops whose temper proved unserviceable for his purposes by soldiers from the Earl of Tyrconnel's Catholic army in Ireland. Even the English Roman Catholic Lords at the Council-table protested against this measure; and six officers in one regiment resigned their commissions rather than enroll the Irish recruits among their English troops. The ballad of *Lillibullero*, a scurrilous attack on the Irish Roman Catholics, was sung throughout all England.

For three years the people of England had borne patiently with James II., as the king was old, and as his two daughters, Mary and Anne, had been educated in the Church of England and were married

to Protestant princes, the former to Prince William of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, and the latter to Prince George of Denmark; but when the hopes of the English people for a release from the yoke of popery were dispelled by the birth of a Prince of Wales, June 10, 1688, they resolved upon the dethronement of James II. Many of the most prominent men of all parties in England entered into negotiations with his son-in-law, the Prince of Orange, whom they resolved to place upon the English throne at an early day. James II. little dreamed that many of the officers of the army of forty thousand men which he assembled were in secret league with his son-in-law. Among these officers was General John Churchill, afterward so famous under the title of Duke of Marlborough.

**Consequence of the Birth of a Prince of Wales.**

The other event which hastened the crisis which hurled James II. to his doom was the arrest and trial of Archbishop Sancroft and the six accused bishops. On the very day of their acquittal seven of the most prominent nobles of England sent an invitation to the Prince of Orange to come to England to defend liberty and Protestantism. Both parties joined in this invitation—the Tories under the leadership of the Earl of Danby, and the Whigs under the Earl of Devonshire, Lord Cavendish. Bishop Compton represented the High Churchmen. This invitation was carried secretly to Holland by Herbert, the most popular of English seamen, and who had been deprived of his command because he had refused to vote against the Test Act. The seven nobles who signed this call to William of Orange pledged themselves to rise in arms when he landed in England.

**Invitation to William of Orange, Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic.**

William had seen his royal father-in-law become the pensioner of Louis XIV. of France, the prince's most inveterate enemy. He had diligently watched the persistent efforts of James II. to restore Roman Catholicism as the state religion of England. He had observed James's evident purpose to make Ireland a Roman Catholic state, to become an asylum for English Roman Catholics and a possible refuge for himself—a scheme which menaced the integrity of the dominions of William's wife, who was the prospective heir to the English throne. William's counsels and protests had been unheeded by his kingly father-in-law; and when the birth of a Prince of Wales was announced, William shared the general belief that it was a supposititious child to be foisted upon England in the interest of the Roman Catholic Church. William's purpose was then formed, and he accepted the invitation of the seven English nobles, saying to Dykvelt, the Dutch ambassador at London: "It is now or never."

**His Acceptance.**

William was already, by descent and by circumstances, the champion of Protestantism in Europe. As the brave defender of his native land against the greedy ambition of Louis XIV., he the more willingly un-

**His Position and Claims.**

dertook the defense of the Protestant Church of England against his father-in-law, the cousin and co-religionist of the King of France. Besides, he was, after his wife and her sister Anne, the next heir to the throne of England, being, like them, the grandchild of Charles I.

**His Preparations.**

The English nation was ready to rise against its king upon the landing of the Prince of Orange. William was gathering Dutch troops and transports with wonderful rapidity and secrecy, while noble after noble proceeded from England to Holland. The Earl of Shrewsbury arrived at The Hague with an offer of twelve thousand pounds toward defraying the expenses of the expedition. Edward Russell, the brother of the ill-fated Lord William Russell, appeared at the Dutch capital as the representative of the noble House of Bedford. The representatives of the great Tory families, the sons of the Marquis of Winchester, of the Earl of Danby, of the Earl of Peterborough, then appeared there, as did also the High-Church Lord Macclesfield.

**Silent Preparations in England.**

At home the Earls of Danby and Devonshire—the former on the part of the Tories, and the latter as the representative of the Whigs—were making silent preparations with Lord Lumley for a rising in the North of England. Notwithstanding the profound secrecy with which this whole movement was conducted, the keen instinct of Lord Sunderland, the Prime Minister of King James II., who had apostatized to Roman Catholicism for the purpose of remaining in office, detected the preparations of William of Orange. Conscious that his sovereign's ruin was impending, Lord Sunderland revealed all the king's secrets to William on the promise of a pardon for the crimes to which he had lent himself.

**Accord of James II. and Louis XIV.**

King James II. alone remained obstinate and insensate as usual. He feared no revolt in England without the aid of the Prince of Orange, and he felt confident that a threatened French invasion of Holland would prevent William's landing in England. Kings James II. and Louis XIV. were in perfect accord; and when William began to collect ships and Dutch troops for an invasion of England, the French king schemed to detain him on the Continent. But Louis XIV. committed a great political blunder by hurling his forces against Germany in September, 1688, instead of against Holland, thus rendering the latter country safe for the moment, and leaving Prince William of Orange safe to pursue his campaign in England. The States-General of the Dutch Republic at once sanctioned their Stadtholder's project, and the armament which William had prepared rapidly gathered in the Scheldt.

**Tardy Concessions of James II.**

As soon as the news reached England the king passed from obstinacy to panic. He had mustered an army of forty thousand men by drafts from Scotland and Ireland, but the temper of the troops was such

that he could place no trust in them. He therefore became alarmed for the safety of his throne and made many concessions. He dissolved the Ecclesiastical Commission. He replaced the magistrates whom he had driven from office. He restored the franchises of the towns; and the Chancellor, Lord Jeffries, carried back the Charter of London in state into the city. The frightened king also dismissed Lord Sunderland from office, and produced before the Lords who were in London proofs of the birth of his child, which was almost universally believed to be a Catholic imposture.

**Landing of the Prince of Orange in England.**

But the king's concessions came too late; as the English people had already resolved that James II. should no longer reign; and as Prince William of Orange sailed from Holland with a fleet of six hundred transports, escorted by fifty men-of-war, and carrying thirteen thousand Dutch troops, and landed at Torbay, on the southern coast of Devonshire, November 5, 1688. His army entered Exeter amid the acclamations of its inhabitants. As his appearance had not been expected in the South-west of England, no great landowner joined him for a week; but the nobles and squires soon rallied to his standard, and his rear was secured by the adhesion of Plymouth.

**Risings of the Earls of Danby and Devonshire.**

In the meantime the Earl of Danby gave the signal for a rising in the North of England by dashing into York at the head of a hundred horsemen. The militia returned his shout of "A free Parliament and the Protestant religion!" The nobles and the gentry flocked to his standard, and on his march to Nottingham he was joined by the forces under the Earl of Devonshire, who had mustered at Derby the great lords of the midland and eastern counties of England.

**All England in Revolt against James II.**

All England was now in revolt against James II., and the revolt was triumphant in every part of the kingdom. The garrison of Hull declared for a free Parliament. The Duke of Norfolk appeared in the market-place of Norwich at the head of three hundred gentlemen. Lord Lovelace was greeted at Oxford with vociferous acclamations by townsmen and gownsmen. Bristol opened its gates to the Prince of Orange, who advanced steadily on Salisbury, where his royal father-in-law had mustered his forces. But the royal army retreated in disorder. Its leaders were secretly pledged to William; and Lord Churchill's desertion was followed by that of so many other officers that King James II. abandoned the struggle in despair.

**His Flight from London.**

The deserted king fled to London, where he was told that his younger daughter Anne had left St. James's Palace to join the Earl of Danby at Nottingham. The wretched king burst into tears, exclaiming: "God help me, for my own children have forsaken me!" His spirit was thoroughly broken, and he secretly determined on flight from England in obedience to the advice of his queen and the priests;

although he had promised to convene both Houses of Parliament, and sent commissioners to Hungerford to treat with his triumphant son-in-law on the basis of a free Parliament. He said to the few who had not deserted him that Parliament would force upon him such concessions as he could not endure. After sending his wife and infant son to France, the fallen king cast the Great Seal into the Thames, and secretly left London on the night of December 12, 1688, rowing silently down the river to a ship which he had engaged to convey him to France.

**Temporary Mob Rule.**

The government of England was thus dissolved by the king's own act. The mob was master. Even the army which James II. had collected to uphold his usurped authority was disbanded and let loose upon the capital, and for several days there was a wild outburst of panic and outrage; but the orderly instinct of the Anglo-Saxon race soon reasserted itself. In this momentous crisis the nobles and bishops who were in London assumed the responsibility of government, issued orders to the commanders of garrisons, the army and the navy, and opened communication with the Prince of Orange.

**Escape of James II. to France.**

The runaway king was arrested near the coast; but this was unwelcome news to the authorities in London and to the Prince of Orange, who had promised his wife that her father should suffer no personal injury. No one wanted to harm the fallen king, the English nation having grown wiser since his father's execution. As it was only desired that James II. should be safely out of the way, it was made easy for him to escape. After waiting for some days for an invitation to resume his throne, he fled from London a second time, and embarked for France unhindered, December 23, 1688. The fugitive king arrived safely in France several days later, and proceeded to St. Germains, near Paris, where he was honorably received by his cousin, King Louis XIV., from whom the exiled monarch received a pension during the rest of his life.

**Short Interregnum and Convention-Parliament.**

An interregnum of two months succeeded the flight of James II. Upon William's arrival in London the House of Lords held a session and requested him to assume the provisional government and to call upon the electors of every town and county of England to send representatives to a Convention-Parliament to settle the future government of the nation. The Convention-Parliament assembled in January, 1689. Both Houses and both parties were averse to recalling the exiled king, but the House of Commons with its Whig majority differed with the House of Lords with its Tory majority on the technical question as to the right of the nation to depose its king.

**Action of the Commons.**

The Commons voted that James II. "having endeavored to subvert the Constitution of this kingdom by breaking the original contract

## SECTION V.—ENGLAND'S FIRST YEARS OF GOVERNMENT BY THE PEOPLE (A. D. 1689–1714).

William and Mary, A D. 1689–1702.

William III. and Mary II. began to reign in 1689. England had attained a free and settled government by the bloodless Revolution of 1688. As the will of the nation had been recognized in the choice of William and Mary for its joint sovereigns, the Whig party very naturally came into power, having a majority in the Convention-Parliament. The "Glorious Revolution," as we have observed, made the English government a government by the people, which it has been ever since. Though the English throne is hereditary, the right of the English people, through their representatives in Parliament, to dethrone their reigning sovereign was clearly established by this great and bloodless Revolution, so that even the English crown is "broad-based upon the people's will."

England's Beginning of Free, Popular Government.

Bill of Rights.

The year 1689 was a memorable one in the constitutional history of England. The Convention-Parliament during that year passed a *Bill of Rights* embodying the principles enunciated in the Declaration of Rights which William and Mary accepted upon coming to the throne. William III. signed the Bill of Rights, which has been called "The Third Great Charter of English Liberties." The *Toleration Act*, also passed by the Convention-Parliament in 1689, established complete freedom of worship.

Toleration Act.

Convention-Parliament and William III.

The Act of Settlement provided "that whoever shall hereafter come to the possession of this crown shall join in communion with the Church of England as by law established." The Convention-Parliament asserted its absolute right over taxation by restricting the grant of the royal revenue to four years. King William III. was very much incensed by this provision. Said he: "The gentlemen of England trusted King James, who was an enemy of their religion and their laws, and they will not trust me, by whom their religion and their laws have been preserved." But the only result of this outbreak of royal anger was the resolution of Parliament to make the vote of supplies thenceforth an annual one—a resolve that has been adhered to ever since.

Mutiny Act.

By the *Mutiny Act*, Parliament granted disciplinary powers and pay for the military force of the kingdom for but one year, in order to guard against the establishment of a standing army. Like the grant of supplies, the Mutiny Act has remained an annual one since the Revolution of 1688.

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**King William's First Ministry.**

naturally cold and reserved in his manners, and lacked the easy grace and the cultivated tastes of the Stuart kings, though he was an able general and statesman. He chose his first Ministry from both parties; the Tory Earl of Danby being named Lord President; the Whig Earl of Shrewsbury being appointed Secretary of State; and Lord Halifax, a trimmer between the two great parties, being selected for Lord Privy Seal. The struggles between the Whigs and the Tories were very bitter in Parliament. The Whigs proceeded to undo the wrongs which the Tories had done during the reigns of Charles II. and James II., and clamored for the punishment of the Tories guilty of those wrongs.

**England Joins the Grand Alliance against Louis XIV. of France.**

The election of William of Orange to the throne of so powerful a kingdom as England was a serious blow to his great enemy, Louis XIV. of France; as it enabled William to bring the fleets and armies of England into his struggle with the King of France, and as it immensely increased his power and influence in Continental Europe. William III., as King of England, became the acknowledged head of the coalition of European powers formed to resist French aggression. Without an ally, Louis XIV. was obliged to face the united power of England, Holland, Germany and Spain. An English brigade was sent to the assistance of the Dutch in the Spanish Netherlands, and distinguished itself under General Churchill, who had been rewarded for his services to William III. by the title of Earl of Marlborough. But King William III. himself was detained in England by the unsettled condition of the government, particularly by the critical state of affairs in Ireland.

**Scotland's Rise in Favor of William III.**

In England, as we have seen, the Revolution of 1688 had been peacefully accomplished, not a drop of blood having been shed, and not a sword having been drawn for James II. That king's tyranny had been greater in Scotland than in England; and, as soon as he had called his Scottish troops into England to resist William's invasion from Holland, a revolt broke out in Edinburgh against his authority. The peasants in the West of Scotland at once rose in arms and drove the Episcopal clergy from their parishes, and the fall of James's tyranny was as rapid and complete in the Lowlands of Scotland as it was in England.

**Convention-Parliament of Scotland and the Claim of Right.**

By the advice of the Scottish lords who were then in London, King William III. summoned a Convention-Parliament in Scotland similar to the one in England, and on his own responsibility set aside the laws which excluded Presbyterians from the Scottish Parliament. The Convention-Parliament of Scotland resolved that James VII had forfeited the Scottish crown by his misgovernment, and offered it to William and Mary on condition of their acceptance of a *Claim of Right*, similar to the Declaration of Rights by the English Conven-

## SECTION V.—ENGLAND'S FIRST YEARS OF GOVERNMENT BY THE PEOPLE (A. D. 1689–1714).

William and Mary, A. D. 1639–1702.

William III. and Mary II. began to reign in 1689. England had attained a free and settled government by the bloodless Revolution of 1688. As the will of the nation had been recognized in the choice of William and Mary for its joint sovereigns, the Whig party very naturally came into power, having a majority in the Convention-Parliament. The "Glorious Revolution," as we have observed, made the English government a government by the people, which it has been ever since. Though the English throne is hereditary, the right of the English people, through their representatives in Parliament, to dethrone their reigning sovereign was clearly established by this great and bloodless Revolution, so that even the English crown is "broad-based upon the people's will."

England's Beginning of Free, Popular Government.

Bill of Rights.

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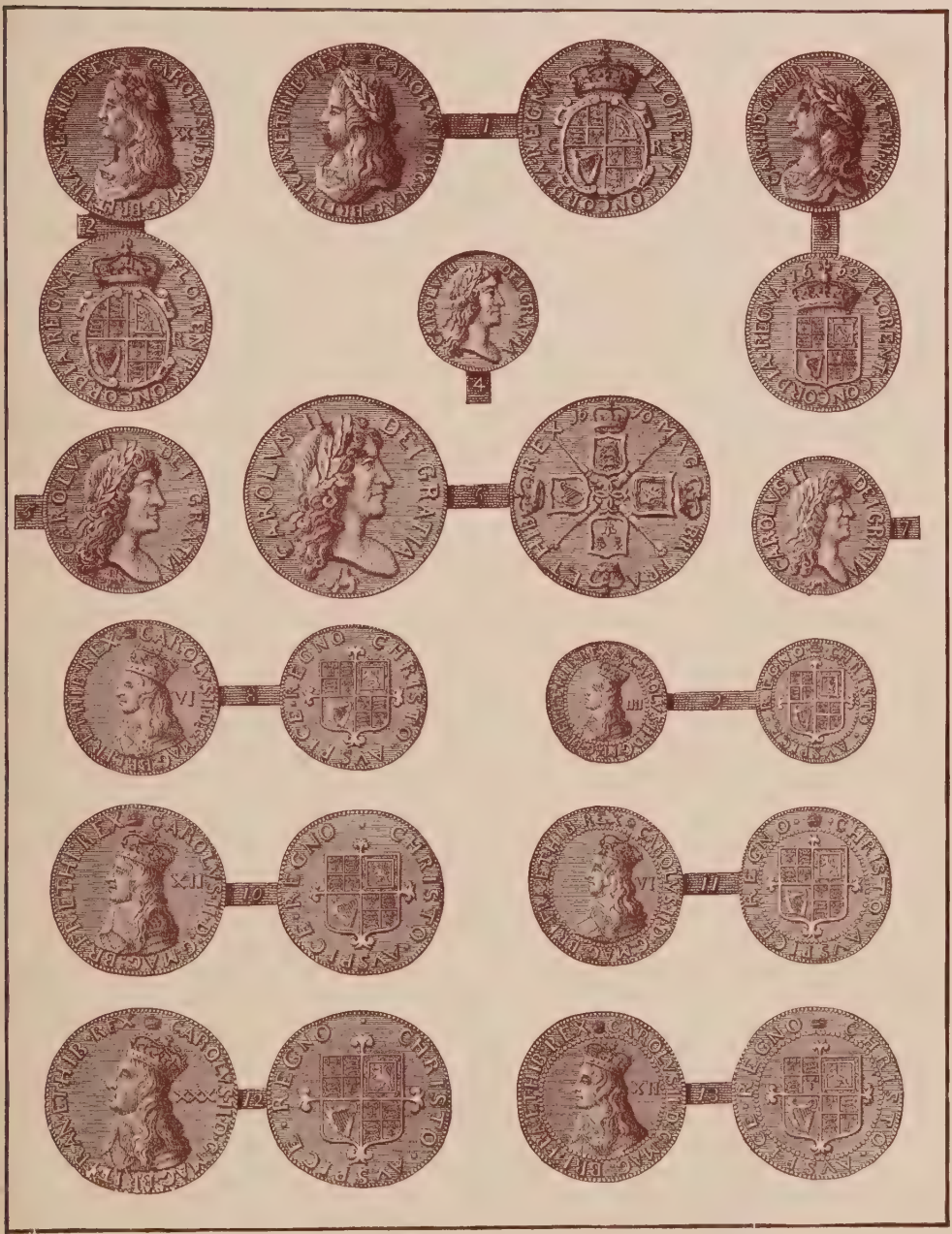

GOLD AND SILVER COINS OF CHARLES II

tion-Parliament, and ending with a demand for the abolition of Episcopacy in Scotland. William and Mary accepted the crown of Scotland with the conditions imposed in the Claim of Right, and their authority in that kingdom was strengthened by the arrival of the Scotch regiments which William had brought from Holland when he landed in England. The strength of the new government was roughly tested in the Highlands, whose inhabitants were the deadly foes of the celebrated and powerful clan of the Campbells headed by the noble House of Argyle.

**Rise of the Scotch Highlanders against William and Mary.**

When James VII. was dethroned in Scotland, early in 1689, John Graham of Claverhouse, who had been created Viscount Dundee as a reward for his cruel persecution of the Covenanters, retired with a few troopers into the Highlands, where he was joined by the clans of the Macdonalds, the Macleans, the Camerons and others, who thought that the Revolution meant the restoration of their old oppressors, the Campbells, as represented by the House of Argyle. The Highlanders were ready to fight the Campbells and the government which upheld them, as they had fought under the banners of the Marquis of Montrose in the same cause nearly half a century before.

**Battle of Killiecrankie.**

As King William's Scotch regiments under General Mackay climbed the rugged mountain pass of Killiecrankie, July 27, 1689, they were charged and swept in headlong rout down the glen by three thousand Highland clansmen under the Viscount Dundee, who was killed in the moment of victory. The loss of their leader broke the bond which held the Highlanders together, and in a few weeks the authority of William and Mary was undisputed in Scotland. In the summer of 1690 General Mackay erected the strong post of Fort William in the Highlands, and his offers of money and amnesty brought about the submission of the Highland clans.

**Sir John Dalrymple's Plot.**

Sir John Dalrymple, the Master of Stair, who had charge of the new government in Scotland, had hoped that the Highland clans would refuse to take the oath of allegiance to the new king and queen, and thus give grounds for a war of extermination and free Scotland forever from its terror of the barbarous Highlanders. He had provided for the expected result by orders of most ruthless rigor, having written to the officer in command in these words: "Your troops will destroy entirely the country of Lochaber, Lochiel's lands, Keppoch's, Glengarry's and Glencoe's. Your powers shall be large enough. I hope the soldiers will not trouble the government with prisoners." But his hopes were disappointed by the readiness with which the Highland clans accepted the government's offers of amnesty. All submitted in good time and took the oath of allegiance to William and Mary, except the clan of Macdonald of Glencoe, whose pride caused him to delay

taking the oath of allegiance until six days after the latest day fixed by the proclamation of amnesty.

**His Cruel Order.** Thus thwarted in his hopes for the extermination of the Highlanders, Sir John Dalrymple eagerly seized on Macdonald's delay as the pretext for a massacre of less dimensions. He therefore laid an order "for the extirpation of that nest of robbers" before King William, and this brutal order received the royal signature, though the king afterward said that he neglected to read the order. After having thus obtained the royal sanction, the Master of Stair wrote to Colonel Hamilton, who undertook the execution of the order: "The work must be secret and sudden."

**Massacre of Glencoe.** Accordingly Colonel Hamilton with troops from the clan of the Campbells, the deadly foes of the clansmen of the Macdonalds of Glencoe, quartered peacefully among them for twelve days until all suspicion of their bloody errand had disappeared. At dawn February 13, 1692, the Campbells fell upon the unsuspecting Macdonalds, and in a few moments thirty of the unfortunate clan lay dead in the snow. The rest escaped under cover of a storm to the mountains, where most of them perished of cold and starvation. Upon hearing the news of the *Massacre of Glencoe*, as this tragedy was called, Sir John Dalrymple said: "The only thing I regret is that any got away."

**King William's Part Therein.** The Massacre of Glencoe has been severely and justly condemned in later times, but very few except Sir John Dalrymple knew anything about it at the time. But King William's consent to it—though excused on the plea of his neglect to read the order which he signed—will always remain as a stain upon his name.

**Restoration of the Presbyterian Church in Scotland.** The pacification of the Highlands enabled the work of reorganization to proceed quietly at Edinburgh. When King William accepted the Claim of Right with its repudiation of Episcopacy he had practically restored the Presbyterian Church as the state religion in Scotland. The Westminster Confession was accordingly revived as the standard of faith in Scotland, and the Scottish Parliament passed an act abolishing lay patronage. The Scottish Parliament firmly refused to pass a toleration act, as proposed by King William; but the king was just as firm in his purpose, declaring that there should be no persecution for conscience sake during his reign. Said he: "We never could be of that mind that violence was suited to the advancing of true religion, nor do we intend that our authority shall ever be a tool to the irregular passions of any party."

**Ireland's Rise in Favor of James II.** Ireland was the battle-ground of the last and most severe struggle between King William III. and the fallen James II. The Earl of Tyrconnel, as Lord Lieutenant, had accomplished his mission in that

dependent kingdom by bringing it completely under Catholic rule. The Irish army had been reorganized by disbanding its Protestant soldiers and by filling the ranks with native Catholics. The courts in Ireland had also been "purified" by substituting Catholic for Protestant judges. The town charters had been seized into the hands of King James II., and Catholic mayors of cities and Catholic sheriffs of counties filled the places formerly occupied by Protestants. In every part of Ireland the half-savage natives had been let loose upon Englishmen and Protestants. In the South of the island the panic-stricken Protestants, pursued with fire and sword, fled from their homes and sought refuge over-sea; while those of the North found shelter under the walls of Londonderry and Enniskillen, which were the only towns of Ireland that declared for William and Mary and made a stand against the Catholic supporters of James II.

**Dublin Castle Seized by the Irish Rebels.**

After intriguing with King William III. for two months in order to gain time, and backed by fifty thousand native Irish soldiers, the Earl of Tyrconnel boldly raised the standard of the fallen James II. by flinging a flag to the breeze from the tower of Dublin Castle, embroidered on its folds with the words: "Now or Never." In response to this signal, every native Irish Catholic flew to arms. The infuriated Irish plundered what their former English masters had left, and such was the havoc that the French envoy told King Louis XIV. that it would require years to repair what had been destroyed.

**Siege of Londonderry.**

In the meantime King James II. had sailed from France for Ireland with a French fleet and army furnished by his cousin, King Louis XIV., and landed at Kinsale. With half of the Earl of Tyrconnel's disorderly army of fifty thousand Irishmen, chiefly armed with clubs, James II. laid siege to Londonderry. The siege lasted one hundred and five days, during which the brave little garrison of seven thousand Englishmen made many gallant sallies and repulsed the assaults of the besiegers. Multitudes of Protestants died of hunger in the streets of the beleaguered town, but still the cry of the besieged was: "No Surrender." When only two days' food remained in the city, an English ship broke through the boom stretched across the river Foyle, thus bringing relief to the heroic garrison and the starving inhabitants, July 28, 1689; whereupon the Irish army under James II. sullenly raised the siege and retired.

**Its Relief.**

**Defense of Enniskillen.**

On the same day the Protestant garrison of Enniskillen made a sally from that town and routed the Irish force twice as large at Newtown Butler, driving it in a panic which soon spread to the whole of the Irish forces under the command of James's general, Hamilton. The routed Irish troops retreated to Dublin, where James II. lay helpless in the hands of the frenzied Catholics.

Ireland's Parliament and Its Bill of Attainder.

In the Parliament of Ireland which the fallen Stuart king had summoned at Dublin every member was an Irishman and a Roman Catholic; and this Parliament proceeded in its work of ruin to the English settlers in Ireland, repealing the Act of Settlement on which all title to property rested, and passed a *Bill of Attainder* against three thousand Protestants. Notwithstanding the love for religious freedom expressed by James II., the Protestant clergy were driven from their parsonages; Fellows and scholars were expelled from Trinity College at Dublin; and the French envoy, the Count of Avaux, even proposed a general massacre of the Protestants who still lingered in the districts which had submitted to James II. But James, to his credit, shrank horror-struck from the proposal, saying: "I can not be so cruel as to cut their throats while they live peaceably under my government." The Count of Avaux coldly responded: "Mercy to Protestants is cruelty to Catholics."

English Invasion of Ireland.

Thus far King William III. was unable to come to the relief of his Protestant subjects in Ireland, as the best English troops were in the Spanish Netherlands, operating against the French; but in the autumn of the same year, 1689, the Duke of Schomberg, a refugee Huguenot, who had entered King William's service, landed in Ireland with ten thousand English troops, and took Carrickfergus after a short siege. But this new invasion only roused Ireland to fresh enthusiasm, and the ranks of the Irish army were again filled, thus enabling James II. to lead a force of twenty thousand men to Drogheda to oppose King William's general. Thereupon the Duke of Schomberg with his ten thousand raw recruits intrenched himself at Dundalk, but a pestilence in his camp soon carried off half his troops.

James II. and William III.

During the next six months of the campaign in Ireland, James II. sought to replenish his treasury by the coinage of brass money, and his troops subsisted by sheer plunder; while King William III. was preparing in England to reduce Ireland to submission, so that he would be free to devote his entire energies to his struggle with Louis XIV. of France.

French Aid to the Irish Rebels.

During the winter of 1689–'90 the English army in Ireland under the Duke of Schomberg was reinforced, and by the spring of 1690 it numbered thirty thouand men. In the summer Louis XIV. sent seven thousand French troops under the Count of Lauzun to reinforce the Irish army under James II. About the very same time King William III. himself landed at Carrickfergus, and rapidly marched southward toward Dublin.

Battle of the Boyne.

When King William III. caught sight of the Irish army under James II., strongly posted behind the river Boyne, he exclaimed in an outburst of delight: "I am glad to see you, gentlemen; and if

you escape me now the fault will be mine." Early the next morning—July 1, 1690, Old Style, but July 12th, New Style—the entire English army plunged into the river. Thereupon the Irish infantry broke in a disgraceful panic; but the Irish cavalry made a gallant charge, in repulsing which the Duke of Schomberg lost his life. For the time the English center was held in check; but the arrival of King William III. at the head of the English left wing decided the battle against James II., whose last hope of recovering his lost dominions was thus destroyed. The fallen Stuart king at once fled to Dublin, and embarked at Kinsale to return to France; while King William III. entered Ireland's capital in triumph. The Orangemen, or Protestants of Ireland, still observe the anniversary of the battle of the Boyne.

Cowardice of James II.

The cowardice of James excited the scorn of his own Irish followers. An Irish officer replied to an Englishman's taunts about the panic at the battle of the Boyne: "Change kings with us, change kings with us, and we will fight you again." The Irish fought better afterward without a king. The French auxiliaries deserted the routed Irish army, which had fled to Limerick, where it was besieged. Said the Count of Lauzun contemptuously, concerning the ramparts of Limerick: "Do you call these ramparts? The English will need no cannon. They may batter them down with roasted apples."

Siege of Limerick.

Sarsfield's Defense of Limerick.

But twenty thousand Irish troops under the brave and skillful Patrick Sarsfield, who had served in the English army, surprised the English ammunition train, repulsed a desperate effort of the besiegers to take Limerick by storm, and thus forced King William III. to raise the siege of that town on the approach of winter.

General Churchill.

After his failure in the siege of Limerick, King William III. returned to England to devote his attention to the war with France on the Continent, leaving the command in Ireland in the hands of the Earl of Marlborough, General Churchill, who had been recalled from the Spanish Netherlands, where he had been rapidly proving himself a great military genius. Cork with its garrison of five thousand Irishmen surrendered in the fall of 1690, and Kinsale also fell into the hands of the English a few days later.

Fall of Cork and Kinsale.

Battle of Aughrim.

During the winter of 1690–'91 a new French general, St. Ruth, arrived in Ireland with arms and supplies, thus encouraging the Irish; but in the spring of 1691 the English under Ginkell, a Dutch general in King William's service, siezed Athlone, thus forcing a battle with the combined French and Irish forces at Aughrim, in which St. Ruth was slain and his army utterly vanquished.

Fall of Limerick and Pacification of Ireland.

The surrender of Limerick by Sarsfield to Ginkell in October, 1691, brought about the complete pacification of Ireland, and the whole country acknowledged William and Mary. Two treaties were con-

cluded at Limerick between Ginkell and Sarsfield, the first promising religious toleration to the Irish Roman Catholics, and the second permitting Sarsfield and his ten thousand followers to go to France and to enter the French service. The triumph of the English was complete; and the severe laws that were enacted held Ireland in such absolute subjection that the country ceased to be a cause of apprehension to England for a century, or until the French Revolution.

**Green's Statement.**

Says John Richard Green, the eminent English historian, in his *Short History of the English People:* "By the military treaty, those of Sarsfield's soldiers who would were suffered to follow him to France; and ten thousand men, the whole of his force, chose exile rather than life in a land where all hope of national freedom was lost. When the wild cry of the women who stood watching their departure was hushed, the silence of death settled down upon Ireland. For a hundred years the country remained at peace, but the peace was a peace of despair. The most terrible legal tyranny under which a nation has ever groaned avenged the rising under Tyrconnel. The conquered people, in Swift's bitter words of contempt, became 'hewers of wood and drawers of water' to their conquerors; but till the very eve of the French Revolution, Ireland ceased to be a source of terror and anxiety to England."

**Attitude of Whigs and Tories.**

On the great questions of civil and religious liberty Whigs and Tories were now agreed, as the two parties had united in bringing about the Revolution of 1688. But there their unanimity ended. The Whigs proceeded to undo the wrongs upon their great leaders during the last two reigns, and wanted to wreak vengeance on their opponents. The attainder of Lord William Russell was reversed. The judgments against Algernon Sidney, Lady Alice Lisle and others were annulled. In spite of the opinion of the judges that the sentence of Titus Oates had been illegal, the House of Lords refused to reverse it; but even that infamous impostor and adventurer was pardoned and pensioned.

**King William's Stand against Proscription.**

The Whigs clamored for the punishment of the Tories who had shared in the illegal acts of Charles II. and James II., and refused to pass the Bill of General Indemnity which King William III. laid before them. The new king was resolved that no proscription should follow the revolution which placed him upon the English throne, as he was naturally opposed to persecution, and as the prosecution of the war with France demanded all his energies and exertions.

**The Oath of Allegiance and the Nonjurors.**

Almost every parson in the Established Church of England resented the requirement of an oath of allegiance to William and Mary as an intolerable wrong. Archbishop Sancroft, with a few bishops and many of the higher clergy, absolutely refused to take the oath, treated all who took it as schismatics, and when deprived of their sees by Act

of Parliament they regarded themselves and their adherents as the only members of the true Church of England. The great majority of the clergy bowed to necessity by taking the oath; but their bitterness toward the new king and queen was fanned into a flame by the expulsion of the *Nonjurors*, as those who refused to take the oath were called.

**Popular Reaction in Favor of James II.**

During the year 1690 Admiral Herbert, who had been created Earl of Torrington as a reward for his services in the Revolution of 1688, had engaged in an indecisive engagement with a French squadron in Bantry Bay. A French naval victory off the English coast would have been pregnant with serious political consequences to King William III.; as a popular reaction had begun in England in favor of the deposed James II., on account of the expenses of the war with France, the high taxation in consequence, the expulsion of the Nonjurors and the consequent discontent of the clergy, the panic of the Tories at the spirit of vengeance displayed by the triumphant Whigs, and the presence of James II. in Ireland. This reaction led to the formation of a new party, called *Jacobites*, consisting of the Tory adherents of James II.; and it was feared that a Jacobite rising would follow the appearance of a French fleet on the English coast.

**The Jacobites.**

**Act of Grace and a Tory Ministry.**

Under these circumstances, King William III., who perceived that if he yielded to the Whig thirst for vengeance his cause would be ruined, dissolved Parliament, proclaimed a general amnesty for all political offenses, under the title of an *Act of Grace*, and accepted the resignations of his more violent Whig Ministers. A new Ministry under the Earl of Danby, the old Tory leader, was formed; and the new Parliament summoned in 1690 had a Tory majority in the House of Commons.

**Naval Battle off Beachy Head.**

The combined English and Dutch fleets under Admiral Herbert, Earl of Torrington, were defeated by the French fleet under Admiral Tourville off Beachy Head, on the coast of Sussex, June 30, 1690 (July 11th, New Style), the day before the battle of the Boyne. The fear of an invasion of England united the English people against the Jacobites. The burning of Teignmouth by the French fleet and the news of the battle of the Boyne gave the death-blow to the reaction in favor of the exiled James II.

**Jacobite Reaction in Favor of James II**

In the spring of 1691 King William III. appeared in person at the head of an English army in the Spanish Netherlands, but was unable to prevent the capture of Mons by the French. The result was another Jacobite reaction in England, and such prominent Tories as the Earl of Clarendon and Lord Dartmouth opened a correspondence with the exiled James II. The Earl of Shrewsbury and other Whig leaders, angered at what they considered King William's ingratitude,

did the very same thing. The Earl of Marlborough sought to bring about a revolt which would drive William III. from the throne and place James's daughter Anne upon it, hoping thus to get the real direction of affairs in his own hands, as Anne had a great affection for the Earl of Marlborough's wife.

**Project for the Invasion of England.**

Admiral Russell, the successor of the Earl of Torrington, was also disloyal to King William III., but was too true an Englishman to allow the French to invade England. In May, 1692, an army of thirty thousand men—French troops and British exiles—was assembled on the coast of Normandy to invade England and replace James II. on his lost throne; but Admiral Russell, at the head of the English and Dutch fleets, defeated the French fleet under Admiral Tourville off the Isle of Wight, May 19, 1692, and in a still greater naval battle off Cape La Hogue, on the coast of Normandy, May 23, 1692. James II., who watched the battle from a neighboring eminence, could not help expressing his admiration of the skill and bravery of the English seamen, saying: "None but my brave English could have done this." This great English naval victory defeated the project of an invasion of England by the fallen James II., and established England's supremacy on the seas.

**Naval Battles off the Isle of Wight and Cape La Hogue.**

**Land Battles.**

The French army in the Spanish Netherlands defeated the allied English and Dutch armies under King William III. in the great battles of Steinkirk, July 24, 1692, and Neerwinden, July 29, 1693.

**Correspondence with James II.**

William's expensive war with France aroused great dissatisfaction in England, and his most trusted Ministers were ever ready to enter into a correspondence with James II. whenever their own interests seemed likely to be advanced thereby. Even the Princess Anne was persuaded by her intimate friend, the Countess of Marlborough, to write a penitent letter to her father, whom she had deserted during the Revolution of 1688, desiring peace and reconciliation.

**Great Constitutional Change.**

The Revolution of 1688 and the Bill of Rights transferred the political power in England from the king to the House of Commons. Hitherto the Ministers of the Crown were but the king's servants, being responsible to the king only. By impeachment the Commons could sometimes force a king to remove a Minister who antagonized them, but they had no constitutional power to put in his place a Minister who represented their will. But the discontent of the Commons with William's war policy and with his internal administration led to a wonderful constitutional change in 1693, which has made England virtually a republic.

The credit of this great constitutional change belongs to Robert, Earl of Sunderland, who had been a Minister under Charles II. and also under James II., and who secured pardon and protection from

William III. by having betrayed James II. when that king's doom was impending, although he had held office under him by complying with his tyranny and by a feigned conversion to the Roman Catholic faith. He had remained in retirement since the Revolution of 1688, and now came forward to suggest his new plan to William III., which was that the king should choose all his Ministers from the party which had a majority in the House of Commons. By this plan the Ministers of the Crown ceased to be the king's servants in all but in name, and became simply an executive committee representing the majority of the House of Commons, with which they must always be in accord on questions of great national policy. Small factions were thus drawn together into two great parties, which supported or opposed the Ministry of the Crown—the party of the Government and that of the Opposition.

**Robert, Earl of Sunderland, and His Plan for a Responsible Ministry**

Such was the origin of that system of popular representative government framed by Robert, Earl of Sunderland, which has ever since prevailed in England. In spite of the temporary reaction, the Earl of Sunderland believed that the Whigs were really the stronger party; as they were the natural representatives of the principles of the Revolution of 1688, and as they were supporters of the war with France, which the Tories opposed on account of the growth of taxation and the ruin of English commerce by French privateers.

**His View of Whig Strength.**

The Tory opposition to the war induced King William III. to hearken to the Earl of Sunderland's advice by dissolving Parliament in 1695 and ordering the election of a new Parliament. The elections gave the Whigs a majority in the new House of Commons, whereupon the king dismissed his Tory Ministry and appointed a Whig Ministry in accord with the new House of Commons. The able Whig statesmen known as the Junto were called to this new Ministry. Thus Admiral Russell became Lord of the Admiralty; the brilliant Somers became Lord Keeper; Montague became Chancellor of the Exchequer; and the Earl of Shrewsbury became Secretary of State.

**New Parliament and a Whig Ministry.**

The Whig majority of the House of Commons moved quietly under the direction of their leaders, the new Ministers of the Crown, thus giving a new tone to that branch of Parliament; and great financial and constitutional measures passed rapidly through Parliament. By the passage of the *Triennial Act*, in 1695, the duration of a House of Commons was limited to three years. The refusal of the Commons to renew the bill for the censorship of the press, in 1695, established the freedom of the press; whereupon a multitude of public prints appeared. Concerning the action of the Commons in this matter, Macaulay says: "This act has done more for liberty and civilization than the Great Charter or the Bill of Rights."

**Triennial Act and Freedom of the Press.**

Bank of England Founded.

To meet the financial strain of the war with France, Montague, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, established the *Bank of England* in 1694 by adopting the plan suggested by Paterson, a Scotch adventurer; the subscribers to a loan being formed into a company without exclusive privileges and prohibited by law from lending money to the crown without the consent of Parliament. The growth of the national wealth had been so great that the list of subscribers was filled in ten days. The discovery of the resources afforded by the national credit revealed a new source of power. The rapid growth of the National Debt gave a new security against the restoration of the Stuarts, who would have repudiated it. Montague also carried out another financial reform in purifying the coinage of England, which had been greatly debased.

National Debt.

Queen Mary's Death.

Queen Mary died near the end of 1694, and thus William III. reigned alone during the few remaining years of his life. William III. never recovered from the sadness caused him by the death of his wife, to whom he was tenderly and devotedly attached.

Capture of Namur.

The power of the new Whig Ministry, the evidence of the public credit, strengthened King William III. at home and abroad. In 1695 the Grand Alliance against France won its first great victory over the French arms by the capture of Namur, in the Spanish Netherlands.

Peace of Ryswick.

The war was finally ended by the Peace of Ryswick, September 30, 1697; by which Louis XIV. relinquished all his conquests except Alsace, recognized William III. as King of England, Scotland and Ireland, and abandoned the cause of James II.

Partition Treaty and the Spanish Succession.

William III. and Louis XIV. soon afterward entered into a treaty for the partition of the Spanish dominions, October, 1698. The Spanish branch of the Hapsburgs, which had occupied the throne of Spain for two centuries, was about to end with the death of the childless Charles II.; and three heirs of Spanish princesses who had married into French and Austrian families claimed the Spanish succession.

Popular Reaction against William III. and the Whig Party.

The death of the nearest heir, the Elector of Bavaria, in 1699, annulled the First Partition Treaty between the Kings of England and France. Europe was threatened with another general war, and the popular feeling in England left William III. without the means of backing his policy by force of arms. The suffering caused to the merchant class by the last war, and the burden of debt and taxation which it entailed, were daily arousing the resentment of the English people; and the general popular discontent avenged itself on King William III. and the Whig party, which had sustained his policy. The king's lavish grants of crown-lands to his Dutch favorites, his cold and sullen demeanor, with his endeavor to maintain a standing army, had lost him all popularity. The Whig Junto lost its hold on the Commons. Montague was driven from his post. Somers was at-

tacked without scruple. Even the boldest Whigs were afraid to accept office. In spite of the king's entreaties, Parliament sent his Dutch guards out of the country, reduced the army from ten thousand men to seven thousand, and the navy from forty thousand to eight thousand.

**Second Partition Treaty.**

By a Second Partition Treaty between the Kings of England and France, in 1700, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany was required to cede his Spanish claims to his second son, the Archduke Charles; while Louis XIV. conferred his claims on Spain upon his grandson, Duke Philip of Anjou, who renounced his hereditary claims on France. But, upon the death of Charles II. of Spain, in 1700, Louis XIV. disregarded the Second Treaty of Partition by accepting the will of Charles II. bequeathing the whole Spanish inheritance to Philip of Anjou, garrisoned the Spanish Netherlands with French troops, and haughtily refused to comply with King William's demand for their withdrawal.

**New Tory Parliament and Its Anti-war Attitude.**

The new Parliament in England with its Tory majority was opposed to war, and in 1701 William III. was obliged to appoint a Tory Ministry under Lord Godolphin, which forced William III. to recognize Philip of Anjou as King of Spain. As Holland did this, William could not refuse. But both parties in England were agreed in opposing a French occupation of the Spanish Netherlands, and a French attack on the Protestant succession in England as settled by the Revolution of 1688. When Holland appealed to England for aid against a French invasion, the enraged Tory party in Parliament saw that they were silently drifting into war, and impeached the leading members of the Whig Junto for their share in the Partition Treaties. They insulted William III. and delayed the supplies. But the disclosure of the French king's designs and fresh Jacobite plots induced even the Tory Parliament to increase the army to ten thousand men and the navy to thirty thousand.

**Imprudent Act of Louis XIV.**

Finally, when Louis XIV., upon the death of James II., in 1701, recognized his son as King of England, Scotland and Ireland, all England was aroused to intense indignation, regarding the French king's action as a national insult; and King William III. found his Tory Parliament very willing to second all his efforts.

**New Act of Settlement.**

A new *Act of Settlement*, passed in 1701, excluded Roman Catholics forever from the throne of England; making Anne, the second daughter of James II., the prospective heiress to the English crown; and extending the right of succession to the Protestant heirs of James I., on the impending failure of Protestant heirs of James II.; thus conferring the crown upon the Princess Sophia, the granddaughter of James I. and the wife of the Elector of Hanover.

Second Grand Alliance.

In 1702 a Second Grand Alliance was concluded against Louis XIV. of France by England, Holland and the German Empire. The Parliament summoned by William III. in 1702 with its Tory majority voted forty thousand troops for the War of the Spanish Succession, which now broke out. In the midst of his preparations for war, King William III. died at Hampton Court, March 8, 1702, from the effects of a fall from his horse, which broke his collar-bone and aggravated the disease from which he for some time had been suffering. He was fifty-one years of age at the time of his death, and had reigned over England thirteen years. His successor ANNE, second daughter of James II., carried out his policy.

Accidental Death of William III.

His Abilities and Character.

William III. for some time had been suffering from ill health, but to the last his fiery soul within showed itself in his eagle eye and in his firmly-compressed lips. As the House of Orange had lain prostrate in his early youth, he was trained in the sad school of adversity. So he had learned to be watchful of public events, and also to be reserved in expressing his views. As his family was restored to power when he was reaching manhood, he brought to the public service wisdom and prudence remarkable in one so young. He displayed his genius to the best advantage in great emergencies. He was never so cool as when on the battlefield, and was always most dangerous after a defeat. He was personally unpopular during his lifetime, on account of his silent, unsocial habits, and his manifest partiality for his own countrymen. But his patience, constancy and patriotism, and the wisdom of his far-seeing policy, which secured to the English people prosperity at home, and which gave them an influence abroad which they had not possessed since Cromwell's time, have caused the name of William III. to be honored in every English household.

Rights of Accused.

Statutes enacted by Parliament during the reign of William III. secured to persons accused of crime the right of counsel and a copy of the charges, and secured to those who were condemned protection from excessive fines and from cruel and unusual punishments.

Popular Liberty and Royal Prerogative Defined.

The reign of William III. embraces an era in constitutional government in England, not only because it gave rise to new laws in the interest of liberty, but also because it gave vitality to old laws. Before his reign there were a sufficient number of charters and statutes, if they had been executed, to have made the English people thoroughly free; but public sentiment was not sufficiently educated and expressed, and the royal prerogative was not adequately limited and defined, to render the rule of a tyrant impossible. During the reign of William III. the rights and liberties of the English people and the prerogatives of the crown were clearly defined, so that ever since that period the sovereign as well as the subject bows before the majesty of the law.

**Principle of Ministerial Responsibility Established.**

The one principle established in the reign of William III. that has made popular government in England secure is the principle that the Ministers of the Crown must be in accord with the majority in the House of Commons. If in any matter of importance, or in any matter in which the rival parties are at issue, the Commons refuse by their vote to sustain the policy of the Ministry in power, the Ministry either resigns to make way for a Ministry of the opposing party or it dissolves Parliament and orders an election for a new House of Commons; and if the new election sustains the Ministerial policy by returning a majority in its favor the Ministry remains in power; but if an adverse majority is returned the Ministry resigns, and a Ministry of the opposite party comes into power. Thus the House of Commons—the popular, or republican branch of the English Parliament—can dictate the governmental policy, and is the chief ruling power in England.

**The King Can Do No Wrong.**

Since that time the sovereign of England has reigned without governing; and as his Prime Minister, as the real executive of the English government, is not responsible to the monarch, but to the English people, through their representatives in the House of Commons, and as the sovereign is shorn of all power in the government, the king or queen is not responsible for any act of government, therefore no royal abuses of political power can result from the maxim of English law that "the king can do no wrong," thus giving truth and practical force to that maxim, the king or queen not being able to do wrong as a sovereign, as he or she is deprived of the power of doing so.

**Development of the British Constitution.**

One peculiar and interesting fact in connection with the English Constitution is that it is not embraced in a single enactment or in the enactments of any single reign. It includes all the great charters and statutes that have been enacted at various times since King John's reign, with such customs and precedents as have been sanctioned by long usage. The English Constitution, although lacking the individuality of the United States Constitution, commands our reverence and our admiration; as it is the slow and steady growth of ages, and as it is the product of the wisdom and patriotism of the best English minds, standing the tests of time and an advancing civilization. In fact the American Constitution is simply an epitome and collection of the various charters of freedom which mark the entire course of English history.

**The Mother Country**

The term *Mother Country* is significant to Americans, not only as indicating the English origin of most of the people of the United States, and of our early colonial governments, but also the English origin of American liberties and American laws. Almost all of those great principles of government which Americans so dearly cherish

were conceived in English hearts and wrought out by English hands. The inalienable rights of man—life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness—dawned in Magna Charta and the Bill of Rights long before they shone resplendent in the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States.

**Greatness of the Anglo-Saxon Race.**

The great Anglo-Saxon branch of the Germanic race—which was planted on the soil of Britain fourteen centuries ago—grew under exceptionally favoring influences to be the admiration and wonder of the world. The history of the long series of popular conquests, which were nobly won and firmly held—from Magna Charta to the Bill of Rights, which were the preludes to our own Declaration of Independence and our National Constitution—contains a fund of political wisdom which is the priceless inheritance of our own nation as well as of the Mother Country. The spirit of American institutions cannot be understood without some knowledge of the circumstances in England which led to the development of the great principles of English freedom upon which our own institutions are built. The great English statesmen who laid the foundations of English and American freedom in England centuries before our Republic was born deserve our lasting gratitude. The names of Stephen Langton, of Simon de Montfort, of John Hampden and the men who founded the English Commonwealth, should be cherished as much as Americans as by Englishmen.

**English Freedom in America.**

Thus it is English freedom—the slow and steady growth of many centuries—that the people of our Republic enjoy. This new slip was severed from the parent tree a century ago, only that it might extend new roots and new branches in a broader field and under yet freer heavens, thus giving fuller development to the great principles of human liberty which constitute the rich inheritance transmitted to us from an illustrious ancestry.

**Anne, A. D. 1702–1714.**

As we have seen, ANNE, second daughter of James II., succeeded William III. on the thrones of England and Scotland. The two great events of English history during Queen Anne's reign were the War of the Spanish Succession and the Parliamentary or Constitutional Union of England and Scotland. These will now be noticed.

**Two Great Events.**

**War of the Spanish Succession.**

Nearly the whole of Anne's reign of twelve years (A. D. 1702–1714) was occupied with the War of the Spanish Succession, which will be briefly noted here and more fully described in our account of the French history of this period. The allied English, Dutch and German imperial armies under the English Duke of Marlborough and the German imperial general, Prince Eugene of Savoy, a Frenchman by birth, won great victories over the French armies on the Continent—namely at Blenheim, in Bavaria, August 13, 1704, and in the

Spanish Netherlands, at Ramillies, May 23, 1706; at Oudenarde, July 11, 1708, and at Malplaquet, September 11, 1709; while the English fleet under Admiral Sir George Rooke captured the rocky stronghold of Gibraltar from the Spaniards, August 4, 1704, and that strongest fortress of the world and key to the Mediterranean has ever since been in England's possession. The English under the Earl of Peterborough took Barcelona, in Spain, in 1705, but the allies were beaten by the French in Spain in the great battle of Almanza, April 25, 1707.

Victories of the Duke of Marlborough.

Capture of Gibraltar.

John Churchill, created Earl of Marlborough in 1689 and Duke of Marlborough in 1702, was the most distinguished political leader in England during Queen Anne's reign, being the great upholder of England's war policy during the War of the Spanish Succession. At first both parties in England supported the war—the Whigs because it was in the interest of their party policy, and the Tories because it was conducted by a Tory general.

The Duke of Marlborough and the War Sentiment in England.

The victory of Blenheim produced great political consequences in England. The Tories in the meantime had slowly drifted back into their antipathy to a "Whig war." The Duke of Marlborough sought to bind the Tories to his war policy in 1702 and 1703, by supporting a bill against occasional conformity, excluding the Nonconformists still more rigidly from all municipal rights, and by allowing the queen to set aside the tithes and first fruits hitherto paid by the clergy to the crown as a fund for the augmentation of small benefices. This fund is still called Queen Anne's Bounty. But the Lords steadily resisted the bill against occasional conformity, and the efforts of the Duke of Marlborough to bind the Tory Ministers to a support of the war were daily becoming more fruitless.

Political Consequences of the Victory of Blenheim.

The higher Tories, under the leadership of the Earl of Nottingham, had thrown every obstacle in the way of the prosecution of the war, and finally resigned office in 1704; whereupon the Duke of Marlborough had a new Ministry appointed, consisting of the more moderate Tories who were still in favor of the war. Thus Robert Harley became Secretary of State, and the talented Henry St. John became Secretary of War. The Duke of Marlborough's march into Germany imbittered the political strife in England. The Tories and Jacobites threatened to bring the duke's head to the block if he failed in his campaign, and he was saved from political ruin only by the victory of Blenheim.

The Tories and the Duke of Marlborough.

The Duke of Marlborough slowly and reluctantly drifted from the Tory party, which opposed the war, to the Whigs, who really supported his war policy. He took advantage of the victory of Blenheim to dissolve Parliament; and, according to his hopes, the elections of 1705 returned a majority in favor of the prosecution of the war.

The Duke of Marlborough and the Whigs.

His efforts brought about a coalition of the Whig Junto and the moderate Tories who still supported him, thus foiling the hostile attacks of the extreme Tories, or peace party. The Duke of Marlborough secured the support of the Whigs by making the Whig William Cowper Lord Keeper and by sending Lord Sunderland as envoy to Vienna. But the duke encountered bitter disappointment abroad in the refusal of the German imperial and Dutch armies to join him in the campaign of 1705.

**Parliamentary Union of England and Scotland.**

The year 1707 was rendered memorable by the Constitutional or Parliamentary Union of England and Scotland. For a long time the policy of uniting England and Scotland into one kingdom had been seriously considered by leading statesmen in the two kingdoms, but the project was long delayed by religious differences and commercial jealousies. Scotland would not bear any portion of the English national debt. England refused to yield any part of her monopoly of trade with her colonies. The English Churchmen longed for the restoration of Episcopacy in Scotland, while the Scotch Presbyterians refused to listen even to the legal toleration of Episcopalians.

**Act of Settlement by the Scotch Parliament.**

The passage of an Act of Settlement by the Scotch Parliament in 1703 warned English statesmen of the danger of further delay. In this measure the Scotch Whigs, who cared only for the independence of their country, united with the Scotch Jacobites, who cared only for the interests of the *Pretender*, the son of the ill-fated James II. The Scotch Jacobites excluded the name of the Princess Sophia of Hanover from their Act of Settlement; while the Scotch Whigs introduced a provision that no sovereign of England should be recognized as sovereign of Scotland except upon condition of giving security to the religion, freedom and trade of the Scots.

**Act of Union and the Kingdom of Great Britain.**

The danger of the Scotch Act of Settlement was great, as it indicated a recognition of the Pretender in Scotland on the death of Queen Anne, and a consequent war between England and Scotland. But this danger was averted three years later by the wisdom and resolution of Lord Somers in bringing the question to an issue. By his firmness the jealousies and differences on both sides were put by; and an *Act of Union* was finally passed by the English Parliament in 1707, providing that England and Scotland should be united into one kingdom under the name of *Great Britain*, and that the succession to the crown of this United Kingdom should be governed by the provisions of the English Act of Settlement. The Scotch Church and the Scotch laws were left undisturbed; but all rights of trade were made common to both countries, and a uniform system of coinage was adopted. A single Parliament was thenceforth to represent the United Kingdom at Westminster, and thus forty-five Scotch members were added to the five hundred

WILLIAM III LANDING AT TORBAY

From the Painting by T. Stothard

and thirteen members of the English House of Commons, while sixteen Scotch representative peers were added to the one hundred and eight members of the English House of Lords.

Scotch Opposition and the Act of Security.

In Scotland the opposition to the Act was bitter and almost universal. The terrors of the Presbyterians were allayed by an Act of Security which became a part of the *Treaty of Union*, and which required every sovereign on his accession to take an oath to support the Presbyterian Church; but the enthusiastic Whig patriots and the fanatical Jacobites of Scotland would not be satisfied with any securities. The Scotch Jacobites sought the aid of French troops and plotted for a Stuart restoration. The Scotch national party threatened to secede from the Presbyterian Assembly which voted for the Union, and to establish a rival Parliament.

Act of Union Accepted by the Scotch Parliament.

But in the end the good sense of the Scotch people, and the loyalty of the trading classes of Scotland to the cause of the Protestant succession, prevailed over all jealousies and opposition; and the Act of Union was adopted by the Scottish Parliament during the same year, 1707, when the Treaty of Union became a Parliamentary Act, which was signed by Queen Anne, who gave her assent in these noble words: "I desire and expect from my subjects of both nations that henceforth they act with all possible respect and kindness to one another, that so it may appear to all the world they have hearts disposed to become one people."

Its Benefit to Both Countries.

Time has answered all of Queen Anne's hopes. The two nations hitherto so hostile have remained one ever since the Treaty of Union in 1707 brought them together. The Union was soon acquiesced in as the best policy for both countries, and so it has indeed proved. England was thus freed from a constant danger of treason and war, and the Union has been of the greatest advantage to Scotland.

Green's Statement.

Says John Richard Green, in his *Short History of the English People*, concerning Queen Anne's expressed hopes: "Time has more than answered these hopes. The two nations whom the Union brought together have ever since remained one. England gained in the removal of a constant danger of treason and war. To Scotland the Union opened up new avenues of wealth which the energy of its people turned to wonderful account. The farms of Lothian have become models of agricultural skill. A fishing town on the Clyde has grown into the rich and populous Glasgow. Peace and culture have changed the wild clansmen of the Highlands into herdsmen and farmers. Nor was the change followed by any loss of national spirit. The world has hardly seen a mightier and more rapid development of national energy than that of Scotland after the Union. All that passed away was the jealousy which had parted since the days of Edward the First two

peoples whom a common blood and common speech proclaimed to be one. The Union between Scotland and England has been real and stable simply because it was the legislative acknowledgment and enforcement of a national fact."

**French Aid to the Pretender Foiled.**

The Constitutional Union of England and Scotland in 1707 excited some disturbances in Scotland, and the French king took advantage thereof by sending a fleet and five thousand men to escort the Pretender to the Frith of Forth. The French monarch's design was frustrated by the English fleet under Admiral Byng.

**The Duke of Marlborough and the Attitude of the Two Parties.**

The Duke of Marlborough had been rewarded with the royal manor of Woodstock, where the palace of Blenheim was afterward erected. It was the wise policy of the duke to govern England by holding the balance of power between the rival political parties. His victory at Ramillies made him strong enough to force Queen Anne to admit Lord Sunderland, the most ultra leader of the Whigs, to office, notwithstanding her hatred of the Whig party. The Tories were daily becoming more opposed to the war, and the Duke of Marlborough was obliged to rely upon the Whigs for support. They made him pay a dear price for their aid. They were the only party that supported the war to which the Duke of Marlborough was pledged; and he was powerless to oppose the measures of the Whigs, as he could not command the support of the Tories.

**Queen Anne and the Duke of Marlborough.**

Not only was the Tory party opposed to the Duke of Marlborough, but Queen Anne's Tory principles caused her to lose faith in the great duke. She bitterly resented the appointment of Lord Sunderland to office, which the Duke of Marlborough had wrung from her by threatening to resign his command. The Whigs were resolved to drive the moderate Tories from office; and, as the Duke of Marlborough was powerless to oppose them, he was obliged to comply with their demands, against his own judgment. This compliance increased the queen's hatred towards the duke, and the haughty temper of the duke's wife won for her the dislike of her former royal friend. The Whigs were now supreme in England.

**The Duke's Waning Influence.**

Great expectations had been formed in England, which the results of the campaign of 1707 so miserably disappointed. In consequence Lord Godolphin and the Duke of Marlborough lost much of their popularity, and they were opposed even by members of the Cabinet. Though they persuaded Queen Anne to dismiss Secretary Harley and Mr. St. John, they perceived that their influence with Her Majesty and their power in Parliament had been considerably diminished, A. D. 1708.

The great victories of the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene of Savoy in the Spanish Netherlands, at Oudenarde, July 11, 1708,

and Malplaquet, September 11, 1709, did not restore the former's declining prestige among his own countrymen, and the great loss of the allies in the battle of Malplaquet caused the Tory enemies of the Duke of Marlborough to raise the cry of a "deluge of blood" in order to make him unpopular in his own country. England was flooded with pamphlets and other publications against the great duke, who was abused, ridiculed, accused of prolonging the war for his own gratification and profit; and even the courage of this greatest of England's generals was questioned. The efforts of his Tory enemies succeeded, and the English people were induced to consider the greatest Englishman of the time as his country's worst enemy. His brilliant services in so nobly sustaining the glory of England abroad were simply regarded by the English populace as evidences of a criminal ambition.

**Rapid Loss of His Popularity.**

A change of opinion with regard to the war had taken place in England, which resulted in the expulsion of the Whigs from office and the accession to power of the Tories, who opposed the war. The English people by this time had become weary of a struggle in which they bore the chief burdens and reaped few advantages. Queen Anne, a woman of feeble mind, had long been under the influence of the Duchess of Marlborough, who did not always use her power with discretion, but behaved toward the queen in a haughty and insolent manner.

**Political Change.**

**Queen Anne and the Duchess of Marlborough.**

A new favorite, Mrs. Masham, now supplanted the Duchess of Marlborough in the queen's favor, and was influenced by Secretary Harley and Mr. St. John to induce Her Majesty to make a complete change in the administration. This would not have been possible had the Whigs continued to enjoy the confidence of the English people, but many circumstances contributed to diminish their popularity.

**Queen Anne and Mrs. Masham.**

The burden of taxation which the expenses of the war occasioned began to excite general dissatisfaction when frequent but useless victories ceased to excite joy, especially as the allies contrived that "England should fight for all and pay for all." The English people regarded the rejection of the French king's peace proposals, through the influence of the avaricious Duke of Marlborough and the vindictive Prince Eugene, as the triumph of private interest and private ambition over public policy. The Duke of Marlborough had incurred the hatred of the people by his avarice, having greatly enriched himself by his share in army contracts.

**The English People and the Duke of Marlborough.**

In the midst of the general discontent of the English nation with the rule of the Whigs, the Tories raised the cry that the Church was in danger, because of the favor which the Whig party showed to the Dissenters, or Nonconformists. Instead of allowing this imputation to refute itself, the Whigs unwisely endeavored to silence the clamor by force. Dr. Henry Sacheverell preached a sermon before the Lord

**Sacheverell's Sermon.**

Mayor of London in St. Paul's Cathedral severely censuring the Dissenters and advocating the exploded doctrines of absolute passive obedience and non-resistance.

**His Impeachment.**

Though Sacheverell's sermon was a poor and contemptible production, the violence of party spirit caused it to be printed and forty thousand copies of it to be sold in one week. It probably would have been forgotten in another week had not Lord Godolphin, who was personally assailed in the House of Commons, persuaded his partisans to subject the preacher to a Parliamentary impeachment. The common sense of the English nation revolted from such an absurd proceeding. The generous feeling of the nation was enlisted on the side of Dr. Sacheverell, and this sympathy was soon transferred to his cause. During his trial the populace manifested the most lively zeal in his behalf; and when he was convicted, the House of Lords, dreading popular tumults, passed a sentence so lenient that the Tories hailed it as a triumph for their party.

**New Tory Ministry.**

The persecution of Sacheverell led to the expulsion of the Whig party from power. Aware of their unpopularity, Queen Anne dismissed all her Ministers except the Duke of Marlborough, and formed a Tory Cabinet in which Messrs. Harley and St. John were the leading members. Mr. Harley was soon created Earl of Oxford, and Mr. St. John became Viscount Bolingbroke. Parliament was dissolved, and the elections returned a Parliament with an overwhelming Tory majority, A. D. 1711. The new Tory Ministry, however, for the time adhered to the war policy of their Whig predecessors; and the new Tory House of Commons voted adequate supplies for the prosecution of the war.

**Disgrace and Retirement of the Duke of Marlborough.**

The Duke of Marlborough fought his last campaign in 1711, during which he stormed and carried the intrenched camp of Marshal Villars at Arleux and captured the strongly-fortified town of Bouchain; but while he was winning these successes on the frontier of France and the Spanish Netherlands the malice of his Tory enemies in England was too strong for him; and, being charged with avarice and corruption in enriching himself in army contracts, he was condemned by a vote of the House of Commons and deprived of his command and all his civil offices, and was succeeded in his command by the Duke of Ormond, who had secret orders not to fight. The Duke of Marlborough at once left England, being then sixty-one years of age.

**His Abilities and Character.**

Such was the treatment accorded by his own countrymen to the general who, in an unbroken career of good fortune, took every fortress which he besieged and won every battle which he fought. He was one of the greatest statesmen, and unquestionably the ablest general, that England ever produced. He was remarkably handsome,

*From Photograph, copyright 1902 by Detroit Photo. Co.*

THE OLD CHURCH AT JAMESTOWN

and was gifted with a serenity which few things could ruffle. He possessed unshaken courage, an ardent and venturesome nature, which was held in check by a cool, clear judgment, which was never influenced by personal feelings. He had an extraordinary capacity for enduring fatigue, and he sometimes passed fifteen hours on horseback. His manners were perfect, and a striking trait of his character was his courtesy to every one.

**His Insensibility and Avarice.**

The great duke was passionately fond of his wife, and his love for her was the only strong feeling of his otherwise purely intellectual nature. He was absolutely without feeling in everything else, hating no one, loving none, regretting nothing. The passions which usually swayed others, whether noble or ignoble, were simply regarded by him as elements in an intellectual problem that required patience for its solution. He was insensible to the finer feelings of human nature; and, although he was a man of real greatness, he loved money simply for money's sake, and stained his great fame by his avarice and peculation.

**Anti-war Sentiment in England.**

In the disgrace of the Duke of Marlborough—whom political circumstances had gradually drawn from the Tory party until he had become the most influential leader of the Whig party—the chief supporter of the war policy lost his influence in public affairs in England; and before the close of the campaign of 1711 the new Tory Ministry of England was secretly negotiating with France for peace, and a preliminary treaty was signed between England and France at London in October, 1711.

**Preliminary Treaty.**

**Peace Conferences at Utrecht.**

As early as January, 1712, conferences for peace were opened at Utrecht, in Holland, through the influence of England under her Tory Ministers, who, after many disgraceful intrigues, sacrificed the interests of their country to party purposes. Eighty plenipotentiaries of the allied powers met three envoys on the part of the King of France. Owing to the opposition of the Dutch and German imperial ambassadors, negotiations progressed very slowly.

**Peace of Utrecht.**

After a year's negotiation, the Peace of Utrecht, April 11, 1713, between England, Holland, Portugal, Spain and France—followed by the Peace of Rastadt, between France and Austria, March 7, 1714, and the Peace of Baden, between France and the German Empire, in September, 1714—ended the War of the Spanish Succession; the French claiment, Philip of Anjou, being recognized as King of Spain; while England obtained Gibraltar and Minorca from Spain, and Nova Scotia and the Hudson's Bay Territory from France.

**Party Contests in England.**

The conduct of the Tory Ministry of the Earl of Oxford and Lord Bolingbroke in concluding the Peace of Utrecht aroused fierce party contests in England. The Whigs denounced the treaty as an absolute

surrender of the fruits of English victories and a wanton sacrifice of the advantages which England might have claimed from the success of her arms. The Tories reproached the Whigs for continuing the war unnecessarily after all its reasonable objects had been gained. The English people generally disliked the treaty, and the House of Commons rejected the commercial treaty with France by a majority of nine votes.

**Lord Bolingbroke and the Stuart Pretender.**

The removal of the Earl of Oxford from the head of the Ministry through the influence of the Jacobites, and the formation of a more ultra Tory Cabinet under Lord Bolingbroke, who was favorably disposed toward the House of Stuart, gave ground for popular apprehensions, especially as the Jacobites openly demanded that the Pretender, the son of James II., be declared the heir to the English throne. Lord Bolingbroke would have brought about such a result could he have induced the young Stuart to become a Protestant. The Whigs accordingly raised the cry that the Protestant succession was in danger, and the alarm which they thus spread throughout the kingdom recovered for their party a very large share of its former favor and popularity.

**Queen Anne's Death.**

In the midst of these violent party contests in England, Queen Anne died of apoplexy, August 1, 1714. The reign of "Good Queen Anne" has not only been distinguished for the great military triumphs of the Duke of Marlborough, and for the Parliamentary or Constitutional Union between England and Scotland in 1707, but also for the brilliant galaxy of writers who have made the period of her reign memorable as the *Augustan Age of English Literature*, while the reign of her great contemporary, Louis XIV., had also become distinguished as the Augustan Age of French Literature, as already noticed. The great literary lights of this Augustan Age of English Literature were the great poet Alexander Pope, the political writers Joseph Addison, Sir Richard Steele, Jonathan Swift and Lord Bolingbroke, and Daniel Defoe, the author of *Robinson Crusoe*.

**Augustan Age of English Literature.**

**House of Brunswick, Hanover, or Guelf.**

**George I.**

Queen Anne's death ended the Stuart dynasty. Her husband, Prince George of Denmark, had died several years before her. As all her nineteen children had died before her, she was succeeded on the throne of Great Britain and Ireland by the Elector George of Hanover, the son of the Princess Sophia, the granddaughter of James I. Thus, in accordance with the Act of Settlement, passed by the English Parliament in 1701, the German House of Hanover, or Brunswick—the Guelfs, or descendants of the famous Henry the Lion, Duke of Bavaria and Saxony, the great rival of the chivalrous German Emperor Frederick Barbarossa—ascended the British throne, which they have ever since occupied.

## SECTION VI.—ENGLAND'S NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES (A. D. 1607–1776).

English Claims.

The English founded all their claims to North America upon Cabot's discoveries. As we have already stated, during Queen Elizabeth's reign, the distinguished Sir Walter Raleigh made several unsuccessful efforts to colonize North America; and Queen Elizabeth, in consideration of her unmarried state, named the territory *Virginia*. In 1606 King James I. of England granted the territory between the Potomac and Cape Fear rivers, under the name of *South Virginia*, to an association in London, known as the *London Company*. At the same time the king granted the territory now known as New England, under the name of *North Virginia*, to a company in the West of England, called the *Plymouth Company*.

Virginia.

London and Plymouth Companies.

Settlement of Jamestown.

In 1607 one hundred and five English emigrants, under Captain Christopher Newport, sailed up the beautiful river which they named *James*, in honor of their king; and on the bank of that stream they began a settlement which they named *Jamestown*. This was the first permanent English settlement in America. The settlers suffered greatly from cold, hunger and the hostilities of the natives, until the famous Captain John Smith assumed the direction of affairs, and, by his skillful management, restored confidence.

Captain John Smith.

Legend of Captain Smith and Pocahontas.

Captain Smith explored the country northward to the interior of the present Pennsylvania. According to the well-known story now generally discredited, Smith was taken prisoner by the Indians, whose ruler, Powhatan, determined to put him to death; but Pocahontas, the daughter of Powhatan, interceded for the prisoner and saved his life; whereupon Smith was released and permitted to return to Jamestown.

"The Starving Time."

When Captain Smith returned to England, in 1609, the colony at Jamestown ceased to prosper, and was soon reduced by famine from five hundred persons to sixty. The winter and spring of 1610 was long known as "The Starving Time." The remaining settlers were about to leave Virginia, when, in 1611, Lord Delaware, who had been appointed governor of the colony, arrived from England, with immigrants and provisions, and the colonists resolved to remain. In 1613 the Indian maiden, Pocahontas, was married to a young Englishman named John Rolfe. She was then taken to England and presented at court.

Lord Delaware's Arrival.

Virginia Assembly.

In 1619 representative government was established in Virginia; and, on the 28th of June of that year, the first legislative assembly in America convened at Jamestown. In 1620 one hundred and fifty white women were brought to Jamestown, and sold to the planters

Introduction of Slavery.

for wives, at the cost of their passage. During the same year (1620) a Dutch vessel loaded with negroes ascended the James river, and sold twenty of them for slaves to the planters at Jamestown. This was the beginning of negro-slavery within the domain of the present United States.

House of Burgesses.

Sir Francis Wyatt, who became governor of the colony in 1621, gave the Virginians a written constitution which allowed them a popular legislative assembly. This was the beginning of the celebrated Virginia *House of Burgesses*. The constitution vested the appointment of governor and council in the London Company. In

Indian War of 1622.

1622 the Indians, under the leadership of Opechancanough, Powhatan's brother and successor, massacred three hundred and fifty of the Virginia colonists, and reduced eighty plantations to eight. The whites began a terrible war of revenge against the savages, slaughtered many of them most unmercifully, and drove the remainder into the wilderness.

Virginia, a Royal Province.

In 1624 King James I., by an act of high-handed usurpation, dissolved the London company, and, taking away its charter, made Virginia a royal province; but he wisely abstained from interference

Governor Berkeley.

with the House of Burgesses. In 1641 the staunch royalist, Sir William Berkeley, was appointed governor of Virginia by King Charles I.; and during his administration of nearly forty years the colony

Indian War of 1644.

rapidly advanced in prosperity. In 1644 another war broke out with the Indians, still governed by Opechancanough; and, after a struggle of two years, the power of the savages was broken, and they ceded large tracts of land to the Virginians.

Governor Berkeley's Tyranny.

The Virginians, although democratic, sympathized with the king during the civil war in England. When monarchy was restored in England, in 1660, full power was given to Governor Berkeley to restrict the liberties of the Virginians. Berkeley's tyranny produced a popular rebellion in 1676, headed by the staunch republican,

Bacon's Rebellion.

Nathaniel Bacon, who assumed command of five hundred men without the permission of Berkeley, who proclaimed the popular leader a traitor. Bacon drove Berkeley from Jamestown and set the place on fire, and the first town founded by the English in America was reduced to ashes. Soon afterward Bacon died, and with his death ended the rebellion. The rebels were severely punished; and fines, imprisonments, and confiscations of property disgraced the remainder of Berkeley's administration, William Drummond and others being hanged. King Charles II. said of Berkeley: "That old fool has hanged more men in that naked colony than I did here for the murder of my father."

Governor Berkeley was opposed to popular enlightenment. Said he to the commissioners sent from England to Virginia in 1671:

Remarks of Governor Berkeley and Attorney-General Seymour.

"Thank God, there are no free schools nor printing-press; and I hope we shall not have these hundred years; for learning has brought disobedience and heresy and sects into the world, and printing has divulged these and libels against the best government." When Attorney-General Seymour was asked for aid to found a college in Virginia to prepare the clergy for their work "in the salvation of souls," he replied: "Damn your souls. Grow tobacco."

Virginia after 1680.

From 1680 to 1684 Virginia was a proprietary colony under Lord Culpepper, who owned extensive lands in the province, but after this short period it again became a royal province in 1684. From the time of the English Revolution of 1688 Virginia was a prosperous and flourishing colony.

Bartholomew Gosnold's Discoveries.

In 1602 Bartholomew Gosnold, Raleigh's friend, explored the coast of Massachusetts bay, and discovered and named Cape Cod. He also discovered the islands of Nantucket and Martha's Vineyard, and a group which he named the Elizabeth Islands, in honor of his queen. In 1603 and 1606 Martin Pring visited the coast of North Virginia.

Captain Smith in New England.

In 1614 the intrepid Captain John Smith explored the country between Cape Cod and the Penobscot, and named the region *New England*.

Council of Plymouth.

In 1620 the Plymouth Company was dissolved, and a new company was formed, which was called *The Council of Plymouth*, and to which was granted the territory called New England. A few years previous to this a company of English Puritans, who had suffered persecution in their native land, because they did not conform to the established Anglican Church, settled in Holland. They were led by the pious Rev. John Robinson. Failing to become reconciled to the customs and habits of the Dutch, these humble Puritans, who felt that they were only pilgrims in this world, resolved to emigrate to the wilds of America, where they might worship God in their own way.

Rev. John Robinson and His Puritan Band.

The Pilgrim Fathers in the Mayflower.

These Puritans in Holland formed a partnership with some London merchants, who furnished them with capital for their enterprise. They returned to England; and in September, 1620, one hundred and one of these pious men and women sailed for New England in a vessel called the *Mayflower*. These *Pilgrim Fathers*, as they are called, landed on a rock on the coast of Massachusetts bay, on the 21st of December, 1620. They named the place of landing *Plymouth*, and the town which they founded is the oldest in New England. In the cabin of the Mayflower, just before landing, they had adopted a written constitution of government, and chosen John Carver for their governor. Several months after their landing (March 21, 1621) Governor Carver made a treaty of friendship with Massasoit, the sachem of the Wampanoag Indians. A few days after this treaty Governor Carver died, and William Bradford became governor of the

Their Settlement of Plymouth in New England.

colony. Captain Miles Standish was the military leader and hero of the settlement, who protected it against savage foes and performed some bold exploits. Many settlers had died during the winter. Other immigrants came. In 1627 the Plymouth colonists purchased the interests of the London merchants, and became the sole proprietors of the country in which they had established themselves; and in 1634 they abolished their pure democracy, and adopted the more convenient form of representative government.

**John Endicott and the Settlement of Salem.**

In 1628 John Endicott and one hundred Puritan emigrants founded Salem. They had been sent from England by a company which the following year (1629) was incorporated *The Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay in New England.* In the same year the Company assigned the charter and government to the colonists. During 1629 other immigrants arrived and settled Charlestown.

**John Winthrop and the Settlement of Boston.**

In 1630 a large number of Puritans from England arrived at Salem, with John Winthrop as governor. Some of them made settlements at Dorchester, Roxbury, Watertown, Cambridge and Lynn; while Winthrop and others settled Boston, which became the capital of the Massachusetts Bay colony and the future metropolis of New England. In 1634 representative government was established in the colony of Massachusetts Bay.

**Puritan Intolerance.**

The Puritans, who had just suffered so much persecution in England for their religious opinions, were no sooner settled in New England than they became persecutors themselves, and allowed no toleration for difference of opinion in religious or civil matters. In 1635 Roger Williams, a Puritan minister of the gospel, was banished from the Massachusetts Bay colony, because he advocated toleration for all religious beliefs. Williams founded the colony of Rhode Island the next year, 1636. Religious dissensions still disturbed the Massachusetts Bay colony; and in 1637 Mrs. Ann Hutchinson and the Rev. John Wheelwright, supporters of Williams, were banished.

**Banishment of Roger Williams and Others.**

**United Colonies of New England.**

In 1643 the New England colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, Connecticut and New Haven united in a confederacy for mutual protection against the French, the Dutch and the Indians. This union, called *The United Colonies of New England,* lasted more than forty years, when mutual jealousies caused its dissolution.

**Persecution of Quakers.**

The year 1656 is noted in the history of the Massachusetts Bay colony for a most cruel persecution of Quakers who sought an asylum in that colony. Some were whipped, others were imprisoned, and many were put to death. Finally a milder spirit prevailed, and persecution ceased.

**A Royal Commission.**

The New Englanders, unlike the Virginians, sympathized with the enemies of the king during the civil war in England. When monarchy

was restored in the Mother Country, in 1660, an effort was made to restrict the liberties of the people of New England; and a royal commission was appointed to govern the colony of Massachusetts Bay; but this attempt at usurpation encountered so much popular resistance that it was relinquished, and republicanism was triumphant.

**Missionaries to the Indians.**

In the meantime there were missionary efforts to convert the Indians of New England to Christianity. As early as 1643 Thomas Mayhew labored for the conversion of the Indians of Martha's Vineyard Island, and a Narragansett sachem to whom he applied for permission to preach to his tribe replied: "Go make the English good first." His son, Thomas Mayhew, Jr., was a more active missionary, but after ten years' labor for the conversion of the Indians he perished on a sea voyage to England in 1657. The greatest of all the English missionaries among the Indians of New England was the famous John Eliot, who for about twenty years preached to the Indians in their own language after learning it, traveling and preaching and founding churches among the Indians of Massachusetts, from the Merrimac to Cape Cod, and finally translating the Catechism and the Bible into the Indian language, in 1661–1663.

**The Mayhews and John Eliot.**

**King Philip's War.**

In 1675 the Wampanoag prince, Metacomet, commonly known as *King Philip*, the son and successor of the good Massasoit, commenced a war of extermination against the white people of New England. Philip's first attack was made at Swanzey, on Sunday, July 4, 1675, and many of the whites were massacred. The whites were soon aroused, and seized their arms, while the savages desolated the English settlements on the Connecticut river. King Philip was repulsed in an attack upon Hatfield, in October, 1675; after which he was sheltered by the Narragansetts of Rhode Island. A force of fifteen hundred New Englanders resented the hostile conduct of the Narragansetts by applying the torch to their wigwams; and hundreds of Indian men, women and children perished in the flames, and a thousand of their warriors were killed or captured. The following year (1676) the Indians were subjugated; and their great leader, King Philip, was shot by an Indian who was friendly to the whites. Captain Church cut off his head, and his little son was sold as a bond-slave in the West Indies. Thus ended *King Philip's War*.

**Tyranny and Overthrow of Governor Andros.**

After James II. became King of England, in 1685, he annulled the charter of the Massachusetts Bay colony, and appointed the infamous Sir Edmund Andros to rule all New England as Governor-General. Andros governed tyrannically for two years; but when, in 1689, news reached Boston of the Revolution in England which drove King James II. from the throne, the Bostonians seized and imprisoned Andros, and sent him to England on a just charge of maladminis-

tration in office; and the New England colonies immediately resumed their charters.

**Salem Witchcraft.**

In 1692 the people of Massachusetts Bay were afflicted with a great delusion, known as the *Salem Witchcraft*. A general belief in sorcery prevailed; many unfortunate persons were accused of practicing witchcraft; and, during a period of six months, about twenty persons were put to death, and many others were imprisoned. This frightful delusion passed away as suddenly as it had appeared. Even the most learned in those times believed in witchcraft. The great English divine, Richard Baxter, pronounced a disbeliever in witchcraft "an obdurate Sadducee." Sir Matthew Hale, as Judge, tried and condemned those accused of witchcraft. A century later Sir William Blackstone, the eminent legal authority, declared that to deny the existence of witchcraft is to deny divine revelation.

**Massachusetts, a Royal Province.**

In 1692 King William III. of England united the colonies of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay, and the English settlements in Maine and New Brunswick, as one royal province under the name of Massachusetts, and appointed Sir William Phipps governor.

**King William's War.**

The war that broke out between England and France in 1689 extended to the English and French colonies in North America, and is known in American history as *King William's War*, because it occurred during the reign of William III. in England. The Indians of Canada and Acadia aided the French, while the Five Nations, of New York, assisted the English. In July, 1689, the town of Dover, in New Hampshire, was attacked by the French and their Indian allies; and in February, 1690, Schenectady, in New York, was burned and sixty of its inhabitants were atrociously massacred by the French and the Indians.

**Attacks on Dover and Schenectady.**

**New England Expeditions against the French.**

In May, 1690, the New England colonies sent a naval expedition under Sir William Phipps, which plundered the French colony of Acadia. The same year a New England land expedition under a son of Governor Winthrop, of Connecticut, proceeded to attack Montreal; while a naval force under Sir William Phipps was sent against Quebec. Both expeditions were failures. The people of New England suffered terribly from the attacks of the French and their savage allies, until the Peace of Ryswick was concluded between England and France, in 1697.

**Queen Anne's War.**

In 1702 a war broke out between England and France, which extended to the colonies of those nations in North America. This war, called in Europe the *War of the Spanish Succession*, is known in American history as *Queen Anne's War*, so called because it happened during the reign of Queen Anne in England. The French and Indians again spread desolation among the English settlements. Deer-

EMBARKATION OF THE PILGRIMS

From the Painting by Robert Weir, in the Rotunda of the Capitol at Washington

field, in Massachusetts, was burned, and its inhabitants were massacred by the savages and their French allies. **Deerfield Burned.**

In 1710 a fleet from England, aided by a land force from New England, captured Port Royal, in Acadia. Port Royal was named *Annapolis*, after Queen Anne; and Acadia became an English province, under the name of *Nova Scotia*, or New Scotland. In 1711 a fleet and army from England under Sir Hovenden Walker, assisted by New Englanders, the whole expedition consisting of five thousand men, proceeded against Quebec. The vessels were wrecked at the mouth of the St. Lawrence river, and one thousand men perished. The expedition was abandoned, and the Peace of Utrecht was concluded between England and France in 1713. **English Conquest of Acadia.** **Expeditions against Quebec.**

In 1744 another war began between England and France, known in Europe as the *War of the Austrian Succession*, and in American history as *King George's War*, because it took place while George II. was King of Great Britain. The principal event of this war in America was the capture of the French fortress of Louisburg, on the island of Cape Breton, by the English. In April, 1745, Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, sent an army under General William Pepperell against this fortress, called the *Gibraltar of America*, on account of its strength. The New England army, in conjunction with a British fleet under Admiral Warren, laid siege to the fortress late in May, and on the 28th of June (1745) Louisburg and the island of Cape Breton were surrendered to the English. **King George's War.** **English Capture of Louisburg.**

In 1746 the French sent a powerful fleet under the Duke d' Anville to retake Louisburg. The greater part of this fleet was destroyed by storms, and the enterprise was abandoned. The Peace of Aix la Chapelle, concluded between England and France in 1748, put an end to the war. **French Attempt to Recover Louisburg.**

In 1622 the territory between the Merrimac and Kennebec rivers was granted to Sir. Ferdinand Gorges and John Mason, under the name of *Laconia*. The proprietors sent out emigrants to settle in Laconia, and as early as 1622 fishing stations were established on the sites of Portsmouth and Dover. In 1629 the good Rev. John Wheelwright and others founded the town of Exeter. **Laconia Grant and Settlement.**

In 1629 John Mason became sole proprietor of Laconia, and named the region *New Hampshire*, after Hampshire county in England. Mason settled at Portsmouth; and other settlements were made as far as Machias, in Maine. In 1641 New Hampshire was united with the Massachusetts Bay colony; but the two colonies were again separated in 1679, when New Hampshire became a royal province. In 1699 New Hampshire was reunited with Massachusetts under the same governor, but a final separation took place in 1741. **Laconia, or New Hampshire.**

Providence Founded by Roger Williams.

The first settlement in Rhode Island was made on the Pawtucket river by William Blackstone, a Puritan minister. When Roger Williams was banished from the colony of Massachusetts Bay, in 1635, he traveled through the wilderness in the midst of winter; and in 1636 he founded a settlement on Narraganset bay, which, with pious feelings, he named *Providence*. This was the beginning of the Rhode Island colony, which became an asylum for persecuted Christians of all sects.

Settlement of Rhode Island.

In 1638 William Coddington, a Nonconformist minister, and others who were banished from the colony of Massachusetts Bay, founded Portsmouth, on the island which they named *Rhode Island;* and in 1639 the settlement of Newport was commenced.

Rhode Island and Providence Plantations.

In 1644 Roger Williams, who had gone to England for that purpose, obtained from the Long Parliament a liberal charter, under which *The Rhode Island and Providence Plantations* were united as one province; and in 1647 a colonial convention, assembled at Portsmouth, adopted a democratic form of government and established the principles of perfect religious freedom in Rhode Island.

Its Charter from King Charles II.

In 1663 King Charles II. of England granted to the Rhode Island and Providence Plantations a charter which left the colonists in the full enjoyment of perfect civil and religious freedom. This charter was suspended by the tyrant Andros in 1687; but when he was imprisoned in Boston, in 1689, it was resumed, and remained in full force as the instrument of government of the commonwealth until 1842, when a State constitution was adopted.

Adrian Block.

In 1614 Adrian Block, a Dutch navigator, discovered the Connecticut river, and sailed up that stream as far as the site of Hartford.

Connecticut Grant.

In 1630 the Council of Plymouth granted the soil of Connecticut to the Earl of Warwick, who, the following year, granted it to Lord Say and Seal, Lord Brooke and others.

Settlements in Connecticut.

In 1633 the Dutch erected a fort at the site of Hartford, and in the same year the English under Captain Holmes established a trading-house at the site of Windsor. In 1635 emigrants from Boston settled Windsor and Wethersfield; and in 1636 other emigrants from the colony of Massachusetts Bay, led by the good Rev. Thomas Hooker, founded Hartford. In 1635 John Winthrop, son of the governor of the Massachusetts Bay colony, led a company of emigrants to the mouth of the Connecticut river, where they formed a settlement, which, in honor of Lord Say and Seal and Lord Brooke, they named *Saybrook*.

Pequod War.

In 1637 a frightful war broke out between the Connecticut settlers and the Pequod Indians, the Mohegan and Narraganset tribes uniting with the whites; and in a furious battle at the Mystic river the savages

were defeated by Captain John Mason, after their fort had been set on fire, and the tribe of the Pequods was exterminated, and their chief, Sassacus, fled to the Mohawks, who put him to death. In 1638 New Haven was founded by emigrants from England, led by the pious Rev. John Davenport and Theophilus Eaton; and they resolved to be governed in civil matters according to the rules and principles of the Bible.

**New Haven Founded.**

In 1639 the settlers at Hartford, Windsor and Wethersfield adopted a liberal constitution of government for the Connecticut colony. In 1644 the Saybrook settlement was united with Connecticut; and in 1665 the Connecticut and New Haven colonies were united into one colony, called *Connecticut*, under a charter granted to the colonists by King Charles II. three years before.

**Connecticut Charter.**

In 1675 Sir Edmund Andros, then governor of New York, attempted to extend his authority over Connecticut; and for this purpose he went to Saybrook with a small naval force; but he was so firmly resisted that he relinquished the attempt.

**Governor Andros.**

In 1687 Andros, as Governor-General of all New England, succeeded in depriving all the New England colonies, excepting Connecticut, of their charters. He went to Hartford to sieze the Connecticut charter; and while the assembly was in session in the evening the charter was laid on the table; but just as Andros attempted to take it the lights were suddenly extinguished, and Captain Wadsworth carried away the charter and hid it in the hollow of an oak tree, which thenceforth was called the *Charter Oak*. Andros, however, governed Connecticut until he was imprisoned in Boston, in 1689, when the Connecticut charter was taken from its hiding-place, and was resumed by the colonists as their instrument of government.

**Andros and the Connecticut Charter.**

**The Charter Oak.**

In 1693 Governor Fletcher of New York attempted to bring Connecticut under his jurisdiction, and for that purpose he went to Hartford, where he assembled the Connecticut militia. When Fletcher proceeded to read his commission, Captain Wadsworth, the commander of the militia, commanded the drums to be beaten. "Silence," shouted Fletcher, whereupon Wadsworth stepped up and said: "Sir! if they are interrupted again, I will make the sun shine through you in a moment!" Fletcher returned to New York in great anger. From this time Connecticut was a prosperous colony.

**Governor Fletcher and Captain Wadsworth.**

Thus there were finally four New England colonies—New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut. Plymouth and Maine had been united with Massachusetts, and New Haven had been united with Connecticut. Settlements eventually spread west of the upper part of the Connecticut river—in the region afterwards called *Vermont*, a French name meaning *Green Mountain*. The first settle-

**Four New England Colonies.**

ment within this region was made by Massachusetts colonists at Fort Dummer, on the site of Brattleboro', in 1724.

**Henry Hudson's Discoveries.**

In 1609 Henry Hudson, an English navigator, then in the service of the Dutch East India Company, explored the American coast from Chesapeake bay to Long Island Sound, and sailed up the beautiful river which bears his name, as far as the site of Albany. On this account the Dutch claimed the territory drained by that stream. On a subsequent voyage Hudson discovered the large bay which bears his name, in northern Canada; and, while on his home voyage, his crew became mutinous and sent Hudson and his son in a boat adrift on the ice, and they were heard of no more.

**His Fate.**

**Dutch West India Company and New Netherlands.**

In 1614 the Dutch erected huts on Manhattan Island, and in the same year they also built a fort near the site of Albany. In 1621 the States-General of Holland granted great privileges of colonization to a company of Amsterdam merchants who were incorporated the *Dutch West India Company*. This company claimed the territory between Cape Henlopen and the Connecticut river, and named it *New Netherlands*.

**Settlement of New Amsterdam.**

In 1623 permanent Dutch settlements were made at New Amsterdam, on Manhattan Island, and at Fort Orange, on the site of Albany. Immigrants from Holland came over into the colony in large numbers. The first governor of New Netherlands was Peter Minuit (1626–1633), and the second was Wouter Van Twiller (1633–1638).

**Governor Kieft's Misrule and Result.**

The third governor of New Netherlands was the haughty, rapacious and despotic Sir William Kieft, who vainly tried to suppress the growth of democracy among the New Netherlanders, and whose turbulent spirit soon involved him in trouble with the Swedes on the Delaware, the English on the Connecticut, the Indians all around him and the colonists at his door. With cruel treachery, Kieft attacked the Indians at Hoboken; and hostilities were carried on with the greatest ferocity for two years, when the Indians were subdued, and their power and spirit were broken. In 1647 the quarrelsome Kieft was recalled; and on his way to Europe his vessel was wrecked, and the infamous governor perished.

**Governor Stuyvesant.**

The fourth and last governor of New Netherlands was the firm and energetic Peter Stuyvesant, who endeavored, as much as prudence would permit, to check the growing spirit of republicanism among the New Netherlands people, who grew bolder by degrees, and who finally denied the right of taxation without representation, and showed an inclination to bear English rule for the sake of enjoying English liberty.

**His Conquest of New Sweden.**

In 1655 Governor Stuyvesant conquered the Swedish settlements on the Delaware, and formally and forcibly annexed New Sweden to New Netherlands.

ROGER WILLIAMS LANDING AT PROVIDENCE

From the Painting by A. Chappel

English Conquest of New Netherlands.

In 1664 King Charles II. of England granted to his brother James, Duke of York and Albany, all the territory embraced by the Dutch colony of New Netherlands. The Duke sent a small naval force under Colonel Richard Nicolls to take possession of New Netherlands, which was done in September of the same year, 1664. The people of New Amsterdam, tired of Stuyvestant's rigor, and hoping to enjoy greater political freedom under English rule, made no resistance; and Stuyvesant was obliged to surrender the place to Nicolls. The name *New York* was given to New Amsterdam, as well as to the province of New Netherlands; and Fort Orange was named *Albany*.

New York City and Colony.

English Tyranny.

Colonel Nicolls was the first governor of the English province of New York. The Dutch colonists were disappointed in their hopes of enjoying greater political liberty under English rule; as Nicolls and his successor, Francis Lovelace, governed most despotically. In 1673, during a war between England and Holland, a Dutch squadron captured the city of New York; but it was restored to the English by a treaty of peace the next year (1674), and Andros became governor.

Capture and Restoration of New York.

Charter of Liberties.

In 1683 the Duke of York granted the people of New York a *Charter of Liberties*, allowing them a popular assembly; but when he became King of England, in 1685, with the title of James II., he revoked the privileges which he had granted, and made the tyrant Andros governor of New York a second time. When news reached New York of the dethronement of James II. in England and the imprisonment of Andros in Boston, Jacob Leisler, a leading merchant, with the sanction of the people of New York, assumed the office of governor, until the arrival of Colonel Henry Sloughter, the new royal governor, in 1691, when Leister and his son-in-law Milburne were tried and executed for high treason.

Execution of Leisler and Milborne.

Zenger's Trial and Acquittal.

From the time of Leister's death the people of New York resisted the oppression of the royal governors sent to rule them, and republicanism constantly gained strength. In 1734 William Cosby, then governor of the province, caused John Peter Zenger, the editor of the democratic newspaper in New York, to be arrested on a charge of libel. Zenger was tried and acquitted by a jury; and the magistrates of New York city made a present to his counsel, Andrew Hamilton, of Philadelphia, for his noble vindication of the freedom of the press.

Lord Baltimore and the Maryland Grant.

In 1622 William Clayborne erected a trading-house on Kent Island. King Charles I. of England granted the territory on both sides of Chesapeake bay, under the name of *Maryland*, to Cecil Calvert, Lord Baltimore, an English Roman Catholic nobleman, who desired to find a refuge in America for persecuted Roman Catholics. In 1634 nearly two hundred English Roman Catholics, with Leonard Calvert, Cecil's brother, as their governor, formed a settlement at St. Mary's, near the

Settlement of St. Mary's.

mouth of the Potomac river. The assembly met at St. Mary's in 1635, and adopted a liberal form of government for the Maryland colony.

**Clayborne's Two Rebellions.** In 1635 William Clayborne, who refused to recognize Lord Baltimore's authority, commenced a rebellion against the governor of Maryland; but he was defeated and compelled to flee from the province. In 1645 Clayborne returned and began another rebellion; and for a time the rebels held the reins of power, and Governor Calvert was obliged to flee to Virginia; but the rebellion was suppressed in 1646, and the governor returned to Maryland and resumed his authority.

**Toleration Act.** In 1649 the Maryland assembly passed the *Toleration Act*, which granted religious freedom to all sects in Maryland; and this induced

**Protestant Influx and Catholic Disfranchisement.** many Protestants who were persecuted elsewhere to settle in this Roman Catholic province. At length the influx of Protestants was so great that they outnumbered the Catholics; and after obtaining a majority in the assembly they questioned the rights of the proprietor, and, with the meanest ingratitude, they disfranchised the Catholics and declared them not entitled to the protection of the laws. This outrageous proceeding led to a civil war in Maryland between the Catholics and the

**Civil War.** Protestants, which ended in the defeat of the Catholics and the overthrow of the proprietary government; but when monarchy was restored in England, in 1660, Lord Baltimore recovered his rights.

**Maryland, a Royal Province.** The Maryland colony now prospered until 1689, when a Protestant insurrection overthrew the proprietary government. In 1691 King William III. of England deprived Lord Baltimore of his rights, made Maryland a royal province, and established the Church of England in

**Proprietary Government Restored.** the colony; and Roman Catholics were disfranchised in a province which they had founded. In 1716 Maryland was restored to the heirs of Lord Baltimore, and it remained a proprietary province until the Revolution of 1775.

**Settlement of New Sweden.** Under the auspices of the *Swedish West India Company*, a company of Swedish emigrants, under Peter Minuit, the first governor of New Netherland, made a settlement on Christiana Creek, near the site of Wilmington, in the present State of Delaware, in 1638, and named the territory *New Sweden*. Swedish settlements were also made on the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, in the present Pennsylvania.

**Dutch Conquest of New Sweden.** The Dutch at New Amsterdam claimed the territory of New Sweden; and in 1655 Governor Stuyvesant of New Netherlands conquered the Swedish settlements on the Delaware, and annexed New Sweden to New Netherlands. The domain of New Sweden was granted to William

**New Sweden as Part of Pennsylvania.** Penn in 1682, and it became a part of Pennsylvania. The territory now known as Delaware became a separate province in 1702, with a legislature of its own; but it was united with Pennsylvania under one governor until 1776, when Delaware became an independent State.

Dutch Settlements on the Delaware.

The Dutch established a trading-post at Bergen in 1618, and another at Fort Nassau, below the site of Camden, in 1623. The Swedes and Finns also made settlements on the Delaware. In 1664, when New Netherlands was conquered by the English, King Charles II. of England granted the territory between the Hudson and Delaware rivers to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, and named the province *New Jersey;* and in the same year (1664) some English Puritans settled Elizabeth. Philip Carteret, brother of Sir George, was made governor; and representative government was established. When, in 1670, the proprietors of New Jersey demanded the payment of quit-rents the colonists rose in rebellion and drove the governor from the colony.

New Jersey Grant.

English Settlement.

East and West Jersey.

In 1674 Lord Berkeley sold his interest in New Jersey to some Quakers, who founded Salem; and in 1676 the province was divided, the Quakers obtaining West Jersey, and Carteret receiving East Jersey. In 1682 William Penn and other Quakers purchased East Jersey from Carteret's heirs, and made Robert Barclay governor.

New Jersey and New York.

In 1688 King James II. made the tyrant Andros governor of the Jerseys, from which time great confusion prevailed until 1702, when East and West Jersey were united as one royal province, being placed under the governor of New York, but having its own legislature. In 1738 New Jersey was entirely separated from New York, and Lewis Morris became governor.

William Penn and the Pennsylvania Grant.

In 1643 the Swedes made a settlement on Tinicum Island, below the site of Philadelphia. In 1677 Swedish settlements were made on the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers. In 1681 King Charles II. of England granted a vast region west of the Delaware to William Penn, a Quaker, son of Admiral Sir William Penn, as a home for his persecuted Quaker brethren. The province was named *Pennsylvania,* which signifies "Penn's woods." In 1682 the territory of the present State of Delaware was added to Penn's grant. In 1682 a large company of Quakers from England arrived in Pennsylvania, founded the town of Chester, the oldest English settlement in the colony, and organized a liberal form of government.

Settlement of Chester.

William Penn in Pennsylvania.

In the fall of 1682 William Penn arrived in Pennsylvania, having come over in the ship *Welcome,* and was joyfully received by the Swedes and the English Quakers. He met the assembly of Pennsylvania at Chester, when he established a permanent government for the colony. Under a large elm tree, at the Indian town of Shackamaxon, on the site of Philadelphia, Penn made a treaty of friendship with the Indians, who were treated with the greatest kindness by the Quakers. The Indians who were present exclaimed: "We will live in peace with William Penn and his children as long as the sun and

His Treaty with the Indians.

the moon shall endure!" They were true to their word. Not a drop of Quaker blood was ever shed by an Indian. This treaty was never sworn to and never broken.

**Founding of Philadelphia.**

The same year (1682) Penn laid out a capital for his new province between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, and named the place *Philadelphia*, a name which means "brotherly love." Within a year a hundred houses were built. In 1683 the colonial assembly met at Philadelphia and adopted a *Charter of Liberties*.

**Charter of Liberties.**

**German and Swiss Mennonites.**

Before coming to Pennsylvania, William Penn had visited Continental Europe to encourage persecuted sects, such as the French Huguenots and the German and Swiss Mennonites who had settled in the Palatinate of the Rhine and in Holland, to emigrate to Pennsylvania. He very much desired the Mennonites as colonists, as their doctrines of simplicity of dress and manners and of aversion to oaths, to the use of law and to war were similar to those of the Quakers. A party of these German Mennonites under the learned Francis Daniel Pastorius founded Germantown in 1683, the first German settlement in America.

**Settlement of Germantown.**

**Penn's Loss and Recovery of His Province.**

In 1684 William Penn returned to England; and in 1689 he was deprived of his province by King William III., who suspected Penn of being disloyal to his government. Penn's province was restored to him in 1694, and in 1699 he visited Pennsylvania a second time. He granted the colonists greater privileges, and allowed Delaware to have a separate legislature. Both colonies had the same governor until the American Revolution. William Penn died in London in 1718.

**His Heirs.**

His province was inherited by his sons, John, Thomas and Richard Penn, who administered the provincial government either themselves or by deputy governors as long as Pennsylvania was in the possession of the Penn heirs.

**Penn's Peace Policy and Land Purchases.**

Penn's just and humane policy toward the Indians secured their love and esteem, and kept the colony free from Indian wars for three-quarters of a century. At various times, from 1682 to 1784, large sections of the domain of the province were purchased from the Indian tribes, such as the Delawares, the Susquehannocks, the Shawanese, the Six Nations and others.

**John Harris and His Son.**

Among the early Quaker pioneers and Indian traders of Pennsylvania was John Harris, who located at Harris's Ferry, the site of Harrisburg, as early in 1704, and whom some drunken Indians threatened to burn alive because he refused to give them rum, tying him to a mulberry-tree for that purpose, when he was finally released by friendly Indians who came to his rescue. At his request he was buried under the shadow of that mulberry-tree, after his death in 1748, the spot being in the family burial-ground. His son, Colonel John

THE OLD FORTIFIED SETTLEMENT AT CHARLESTON

From a Print published at Amsterdam, 1673

Harris, an American Revolutionary soldier, founded Harrisburg in 1785.

German and Swiss Colonists in Pennsylvania.

In 1723 a number of German settlers migrated from Schoharie county, New York, to Pennsylvania, locating on the Swatara and Tulpehocken creeks. At various times during the colonial period there were large immigrations of German and Swiss into Pennsylvania, and the descendants of these early settlers still retain the prominent characteristics of their thrifty ancestors. These German and Swiss immigrants were of various religious sects and denominations—Lutheran, German Reformed, Moravian, and the plain, non-resistant sects of the Mennonites, the Amish, the Schwenkfelders and the German Baptist Brethren, or Dunkers. The Mennonites had suffered many years of persecution in Switzerland and the Palatinate of the Rhine before their emigration to America, whither they had been induced to come by the exertions of William Penn.

Pastorius and Germantown.

The Pennsylvania Germans had some noted men. The first of these was Francis Daniel Pastorius, the leader of the Mennonites who founded Germantown in 1683 and who signed the first protest against slavery in America, which protest formed the subject of Whittier's *Pennsylvania Pilgrim*. He was a scholar, author, teacher, lawyer, bailiff and Assemblyman. He was born in Germany in 1651 and died in Germantown in 1719.

Muhlenberg, Weiser and Schlatter.

Among the notable Pennsylvania Germans of the first half of the eighteenth century was the Rev. Heinrich Melchior Muhlenberg, the patriarch and founder of the Lutheran Church in America, and the father of three distinguished sons: John Peter Gabriel Muhlenberg, an American Revolutionary general; Frederick Augustus Conrad Muhlenberg, the Speaker of the House of Representatives of the First and Third Congresses; and the Rev. Gotthilf Heinrich Ernest Muhlenberg, distinguished as a divine and a botanist. Other distinguished Pennsylvania Germans of the first half of the eighteenth century were Conrad Weiser, the famous Indian interpreter and a Pennsylvania colonel in the French and Indian War; and the Rev. Michael Schlatter, the leader and organizer of the German Reformed Church in America.

Seventh Day Baptist Community.

A peculiar Pennsylvania German settlement was the monastic community of the Seventh Day Baptists at Ephrata, whose members lived like the monks and nuns of the Roman Catholic Church, the males in a brothers' house and the females in a sisters' house; who observed Saturday, the seventh day of the week, as the Sabbath, whence their name; and who founded the first Sabbath-school in the world, though not the first Sunday-school. They had a printing-house, a schoolhouse, a bake-house, a paper-mill and other buildings, one with a town-clock. They printed German religious books, *Fox's Book of*

*Martyrs* and others, and the sisters' rooms were decorated with ink paintings, many of them with scriptural texts.

**Zinzendorf and Moravian Communities and Missionaries.**

The Moravian sect, under their distinguished leader, Nicholas Louis Count Zinzendorf, founded the communistic settlements of Bethlehem, Nazareth and Lititz, at which places they established educational institutions which still exist. Three worthy Moravian missionaries labored for the Christianization of the Indians. The first of these was Count Zinzendorf, who passed the middle part of the eighteenth century in Pennsylvania and preached to the Indians of the Wyoming Valley. The other two were David Zeisberger and John Heckewelder, who passed the last half of the eighteenth century in missionary labors among the Indians of Pennsylvania and the wild West.

**Baron Stiegel.**

Another peculiar German settlement was that of Baron Heinrich Wilhelm Stiegel, named Manheim, in honor of his native city in Germany. After being a baron in Germany, he was an iron master and a glass manufacturer, a preacher and a teacher, rich and poor, at liberty and imprisoned, in Pennsylvania, where he ended his life as a schoolmaster.

*"Baron Stiegel ist der mann*
*Der die Œfen gieszen kann."*

"Baron Stiegel is the man
Who can cast stoves."

**Scotch-Irish, Welsh and Huguenot French.**

During the first half of the eighteenth century large numbers of Scotch-Irish Presbyterians, from the North of Ireland, settled in Pennsylvania, occupying the frontier sections, where their hardy character and rugged disposition rendered them very efficient guards and protectors for the settlements of the peaceable and non-resistant Germans and Quaker English against hostile Indian attacks during the French and Indian War. The posterity of these Scotch-Irish settlers include a very substantial part of the present population of Pennsylvania. Welsh Episcopalians and Huguenot French were also among the Pennsylvania colonists, and have left a respected posterity.

**Boundary Disputes with Maryland.**

The Lords Baltimore claimed all of Southern Pennsylvania as far north as the present Columbia as a part of Maryland, and between 1730 and 1738 many collisions occurred between Pennsylvania and Maryland settlers and militia and officials of the two colonies in what is now York county, Pennsylvania, during *Cresap's War;* so named from Colonel Thomas Cresap, the leader of the Maryland border raiders. Arrests and imprisonments were made on both sides, Cresap being taken to the Philadelphia jail, and Pennsylvanians being imprisoned at Baltimore and Annapolis, Maryland. Marylanders were also jailed at Lancaster, but were forcibly released by other Maryland

raiders who broke open the Lancaster jail. Finally, the boundary line between Pennsylvania and Maryland, which so long had been a subject of dispute, was settled as at present, in 1767, by Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, surveyors appointed for the purpose by the British government; and the line established by them has ever since been called *Mason and Dixon's Line*, being celebrated during the ante-Civil War period of the United States as the line between freedom and slavery.

**Mason and Dixon's Line.**

The south-western part of Pennsylvania as far north as Pittsburg and the Ohio river was claimed by Virginia, and in 1774 occurred *Lord Dunmore's War*, brought about by the action of Lord Dunmore, the royal governor of Virginia, who attempted to forcibly seize that region, employing for that purpose Dr. John Connelly, a renegade Pennsylvanian; but this pliant tool was arrested by Arthur St. Clair, a Pennsylvania magistrate and subsequent American Revolutionary general, but Connelly was still defiant. Finally, in 1779, during the American Revolution, Virginia and Pennsylvania settled their boundary dispute by establishing the lines which now separate Pennsylvania from West Virginia.

**Boundary Dispute with Virginia.**

**Adjustment.**

The north-eastern part of Pennsylvania was claimed by Connecticut, whose charter extended the domain of that colony westward to the Pacific Ocean. In 1762 a party of Connecticut settlers occupied the Wyoming Valley, and the next year they founded Wilkes-Barre, Kingston, Plymouth and Hanover, but in October of the same year, 1763, occurred the *First Massacre of Wyoming*, in which about twenty of these Connecticut settlers were slaughtered by the Delaware Indians. Pennsylvania settlers entered the Wyoming Valley in 1768, and fresh Connecticut settlers came in 1769, thus giving rise to the *Pennamite and Yankee War*. The Connecticut settlers were led by Zebulon Butler, and forty of them built the *Forty Fort*, but were arrested and jailed at Easton. Forts and blockhouses were erected, and many sieges and skirmishes followed. Both parties imprisoned men, drove away women and children, and committed other outrages. The American Revolution ended this colonial civil war for a time, but in 1782 the trouble was renewed, and only settled in 1799, the Connecticut settlers being left in possession of their lands on condition of acknowledging the jurisdiction of Pennsylvania.

**Dispute with Connecticut Settlers.**

**Adjustment.**

Pennsylvania was owned by the Penn heirs until 1776, when their claims and interests were purchased by the colonists and the province became an independent commonwealth.

**End of Proprietary Pennsylvania.**

Between the years 1640 and 1650 emigrants from Virginia settled near the mouth of the Chowan river. In 1663 King Charles II. of England granted to the Earl of Clarendon and seven associates the

**The Carolina Grant.**

extensive region between Virginia and Florida, under the general name of *Carolina.*

**Albemarle County Colony**

In 1663 a number of emigrants from Virginia, with William Drummond as governor, founded Edenton, on the Chowan river. This settlement was the *Albemarle County Colony.* A representative government was adopted, and the first legislative assembly in Carolina convened at Edenton in 1668. In 1665 some planters from the Barbadoes Islands, with Sir John Yeamans as governor, established on the Cape Fear River a settlement known as the *Clarendon County Colony.* This colony was broken up several years afterward.

**Clarendon County Colony.**

**Fundamental Constitutions, or Grand Model.**

Ashley Cooper, Earl of Shaftesbury, and the philosopher John Locke prepared a constitution of government for the Carolinas. This instrument, known as the *Fundamental Constitutions,* or the *Grand Model,* was extremely aristocratic in spirit, and utterly repugnant to the wishes of the freedom-loving settlers of the Carolinas. It could never be enforced, as every attempt to do so produced a rebellion; and, after a struggle of a quarter of a century between the colonists and the proprietors, this absurd scheme of government was finally abandoned by the proprietors in 1695, and the cause of republicanism was triumphant in Carolina.

**Rebellion.**

The attempt to enforce the Fundamental Constitutions in the Albemarle Colony (North Carolina) produced a rebellion, which resulted in the imprisonment of the governor, and the temporary subversion of the proprietary government. In 1683 Seth Sothel, one of the proprietors, became governor of North Carolina; but, after a tyrannical and corrupt administration of five years, he was banished from the colony. In 1695 the good Quaker, John Archdale, became governor of both the Carolinas; and under his administration both colonies greatly prospered.

**Governor Seth Sothel.**

**Governor John Archdale.**

**War with the Tuscarora Indians.**

Quakers, Huguenots and German Protestants settled in North Carolina. In 1711 a frightful war broke out between the North Carolina settlers and the Tuscarora Indians. The Indians massacred many of the German settlers, but the Tuscaroras were finally subdued. Twelve hundred of them were captured; and the remainder joined the Five Nations in New York, thus forming the powerful Indian league of the *Six Nations.*

**Carteret County Colony.**

In 1670 a company of emigrants from England, with William Sayle as their governor, settled Old Charleston, on the Ashley river. This is known as the *Carteret County Colony;* so called in honor of Sir George Carteret, one of the proprietors of the Carolinas. In 1680 the inhabitants of Old Charleston removed to a point between the Ashley and Cooper rivers, where they laid the foundations of the present city of Charleston. A representative government was estab-

**Charleston Founded.**

lished, and the first legislative assembly in the Carteret Colony convened at Charleston in 1682.

Rebellion.

Dutch emigrants, Puritans and Huguenots settled in the Carteret Colony (South Carolina). An effort to enforce the Fundamental Constitutions led to a rebellion in South Carolina, which resulted in the banishment of the governor, James Colleton. In 1690 the famous Seth Sothel came to South Carolina, of which colony he became governor; but, after oppressing and plundering the colonists for two years, he was banished. Under the wise administration of John Archdale prosperity attended the colony.

Governor Seth Sothel.

Governor John Archdale.

War with the Spaniards of Florida.

In 1702 hostilities commenced between the South Carolinians and the Spaniards of Florida. South Carolina sent an unsuccessful expedition against the Spaniards; but the Apalachian Indians, the allies of the Spaniards, were subjugated; eight hundred of the Apalachians being captured, and their country taken possession of. In 1706 a combined French and Spanish fleet failed in an attack upon Charleston. In 1715 the South Carolina colonists became involved in a dangerous war with the Yamasee Indians. Governor Craven with twelve hundred men subdued the Yamasees, and drove them into Florida.

War with the Yamasee Indians.

North and South Carolina, Royal Provinces.

In 1719 the people of South Carolina rebelled against the proprietary government; and in 1729 the proprietors, wearied of the perpetual opposition, surrendered their claims to the crown, whereupon North and South Carolina became distinct royal provinces, and so remained until the great Revolution of 1775, which swept away feudalism and royalty.

James Edward Oglethorpe and the Georgia Grant.

Georgia was not settled until the eighteenth century. In 1743 King George II. of England granted to the philanthropic James Edward Oglethorpe, a member of the English Parliament, and other benevolent individuals, "in trust for the poor," all the territory between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers. Oglethorpe's plan was to offer an asylum in America to virtuous persons imprisoned for debt, and to other poor. Near the close of 1732 one hundred and twenty of these unfortunate persons sailed from England, with Oglethorpe as their governor; and in February, 1733, they arrived in America and founded the city of Savannah. Oglethorpe met fifty Indian chiefs, with the Creek sachem, Tomochichi, at their head, and concluded a friendly treaty with them, obtaining a large tract of territory, which was named *Georgia*, in honor of King George II.

Savannah Founded.

Indian Treaty.

War with the Spaniards of Florida.

In 1739 a war broke out between England and Spain; and in 1740 Oglethorpe, with two thousand Georgians, invaded the Spanish province of Florida; but after an unsuccessful siege of St. Augustine he returned to Georgia. In 1742 the Spaniards invaded Georgia, but they were defeated and driven back. Oglethorpe left Georgia forever

Georgia, a Royal Province.

in 1743; and in 1752 the trustees of the colony, wearied of their troublesome charge, sold their interests to the crown, whereupon Georgia became a royal province, and so continued until 1776, when it became an independent State.

Nationalities in the Anglo-American Colonies.

England's thirteen colonies on the Atlantic coast of North America rapidly increased in population. The great body of the colonists were of English descent, though there was a mixture of different European nationalities. The New England colonies and Maryland and Virginia were wholly English. The people of New York and New Jersey were English and Dutch; those of Pennsylvania, English, Scotch-Irish, Welsh, Germans and Swiss; those of Delaware, English and Swedish; those of the Carolinas, English, Dutch, Germans and Scotch-Irish; and those of Georgia, English and Scotch-Irish.

Religious Classification of the Colonists.

Most of the colonists of New England, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, and many in the Carolinas, as we have seen, were religious exiles, who settled in the New World to seek a refuge from religious persecution. The Puritans of Massachusetts, who sought refuge in America against religious persecution, themselves persecuted those who did not agree with them. They were remarkable for their austerity. Their laws and customs were rigid, and frivolous amusements were not tolerated; while education was fostered, and habits of reading were encouraged. The people of New England were Puritans; the Church of England prevailed in New York, Maryland, Virginia, the Carolinas and Georgia; the Quakers were chiefly found in New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware; and the Roman Catholics were most numerous in Maryland.

Education in the Colonies.

Education received early and special attention in the colonies, especially in New England. As early as 1621 schools for the education of both white and Indian children were established in Virginia; and in 1692 William and Mary College, named after King William III. and his wife Mary II., was established at Williamsburg, Virginia. The Dutch Reformed Church established a school at New Amsterdam in 1633. Harvard College, at Cambridge, Massachusetts, was founded in 1637, and named after the Rev. John Harvard. Yale College, in Connecticut, was established at Saybrock in 1701, and was named after Elihu Yale, President of the English East India Company, one of its most liberal benefactors; and in 1717 it was removed to New Haven. The College of New Jersey, at Princeton, was incorporated in 1738; and its third president was the distinguished divine and metaphysician, Jonathan Edwards.

Forms of Colonial Governments.

Three forms of government prevailed among the Anglo-American colonists—charter, proprietary and royal. The charter governments gave the supreme power to the people, who elected their governors, as

well as their legislative assemblies. The proprietary colonies were owned by individuals or companies, who appointed the governors, but allowed the people to elect their legislative assemblies. The royal provinces were owned and controlled wholly by the king, who appointed the governors, but allowed the people to choose their own legislative assemblies. It will thus be seen that all the colonies had their popular legislative assemblies. At the opening of the American Revolution, in 1775, the charter governments existed in Rhode Island and Connecticut; the proprietary colonies were Pennsylvania, Delaware and Maryland; and the rest of the colonies were royal provinces.

**Internal and External Difficulties of the Colonies.**

Most of the colonies had to contend against Indian hostilities, and most of the colonists in all the provinces resisted every royal and proprietary encroachment upon their rights. Religious and civil dissensions at times disturbed some of them; as in the case of Massachusetts, Maryland, Virginia and the Carolinas. New England and New York had to contend against the hostilities of the French from Canada, while the Carolinas and Georgia had to confront the Spaniards of Florida.

**Bond of Union among the Colonists.**

Though the colonists were of different European nationalities, a common bond of interest knit all the colonies together; their democratic institutions tended to educate them for self-government; the colonists were actuated by a common desire for the greatest civil, political and religious freedom; and all the colonies were semi-republican and semi-independent from the beginning. Negro-slavery became fixed in the Southern colonies. The colonists, whose pursuits were chiefly agricultural, prospered wonderfully; and when the American Revolution broke out, in 1775, the Anglo-American colonies had a population of three millions.

**Their Progress.**

**English County and City Names.**

The early English colonists named the towns and counties in America after their home counties and cities in England, using such names as Hampshire, Kent, Essex, Sussex, Middlesex, Gloucester, Bucks, Berks, Reading, Chester, Lancaster, York, Bedford, Somerset, Huntingdon, Carlisle, Cumberland, Northumberland, Westmoreland, Northampton, Southampton, Portsmouth, Plymouth, Worcester, Bath, Newcastle, Exeter, Manchester, Boston, Barnstable, Norfolk, Suffolk, Rochester, Winchester, Richmond, Shrewsbury, Dover, Portland, Falmouth, New Haven, Cambridge, Oxford, Nottingham, Salisbury, Bristol, Rutland, Bradford, Birmingham, Berwick, Windsor, Warwick and many other such English county and city names.

**Indian Names for Mountains, Lakes, Streams, Etc.**

The whites generally assigned the Indian names to mountains and rivers, creeks and lakes, as Adirondack, Allegheny, Connecticut, Merrimac, Penobscot, Kennebec, Androscoggin, Hoosatonic, Mohawk, Lehigh, Schuylkill, Susquehanna, Conestoga, Potomac, Roanoke, Ohio,

Mississippi, Missouri, Illinois, Wabash, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa, Kentucky, Tennessee, Miami, Kanawha, Muskingum, Kansas, Arkansas, Nebraska, Sioux, Alabama, Tombigbee, Altamaha, Ogeechee, Chattahoochee, Savannah, Combahee, Ocmulgee, Cheraw, Tippecanoe, Athabasca, Maumee, Ontario, Erie, Huron, Michigan, Oneida, Onondaga, Cayuga, Canandaigua, Winnipiseogee, Winnipeg and many others.

COLONIAL GOVERNORS AND PROPRIETORS

# CHAPTER XXXV.

# FRANCE AND THE AGE OF LOUIS XIV.

## SECTION I.—FIRST TWO BOURBONS AND CARDINAL RICHELIEU (A. D. 1598–1642).

**Henry IV. and the French Finances.**

After freeing France from civil and foreign war, Henry IV. was enabled to devote his energies to the task of arranging the internal affairs of the kingdom upon a secure basis. The finances were in a deplorable condition. The national debt exceeded three hundred million francs—a sum equivalent to about one hundred and sixty million dollars in United States money. The Farmers-General—the officials who collected this revenue—defrauded the government to such an extent that only thirty million francs reached the national treasury out of the two hundred million which the French people paid annually as taxes.

**The Duke of Sully's Able Administration.**

In 1698 Henry IV. assigned the management of the finances to Maximilian de Bethune, Baron de Rosny, whom he had created Duke of Sully. This Minister was one of the ablest statesmen that France ever produced, and was a man of the most sterling integrity. His vigorous measures soon redounded to the financial benefit of France. The frauds which had deprived the government of the greater part of its revenue were sternly checked, and the levying of arbitrary taxes was stopped, while unnecessary and expensive offices and titles were abolished. There was a reduction in taxation to twenty-six million francs per annum, twenty million of which were paid into the national treasury. The national debt was reduced almost one-half, and a reserve fund of more than twenty-six million livres was accumulated.

**French Industry and Material Greatness.**

Henry IV. gave a cordial and unswerving support to his great Minister, and the kingdom soon felt the good results of the new policy. The king and the Minister encouraged agriculture, commerce, manufactures and all branches of industry. Commercial treaties were negotiated with England, Holland, Spain and Turkey; and French colonies were planted in America, where De Monts founded Acadia, afterward Nova Scotia, in 1605, and where Samuel Champlain founded the city

of Quebec in 1608. Marshes were drained; roads, bridges and canals were constructed; and measures were adopted for the preservation of the forests of France. Everything connected with the welfare and prosperity of the kingdom received the personal care and attention of Henry IV. and the Duke of Sully; and the unrivaled fame of the French for the production of fine and curious fabrics dates from this reign.

**Moderation of Henry IV.**

In his own dress and equipage, Henry IV. presented an example of moderation; and the French nobles were recommended to live upon their estates, in order to avoid the extravagance and frivolous rivalries of a court. At the close of the sixteenth century France was the greatest, wealthiest and most populous state of Europe; and Paris was the largest European capital, excepting Moscow.

**France's Greatness.**

**Domestic Troubles of Henry IV.**

Although Henry IV. was so successful in his public life, he was very unfortunate in his family affairs. The unmitigated vices of his wife, Margaret of Valois, had led to his separation from her many years previously; and, as he had no legitimate heir, he now seriously thought of procuring a divorce from his dissolute wife in order to marry his mistress, Gabrielle d'Estrées, with whom he had several children, and whom he had created Duchess of Beaufort. Many of the leading nobles of France favored the proposed marriage, but the Duke of Sully prevented it. The duchess unwisely demanded that the king should disgrace his great Minister, but Henry IV. bluntly replied that if it were necessary to part with either herself or the Duke of Sully he would stand by the Minister. This decisive blow to her hopes threw her into a violent illness which ended her life in April, 1599.

**Divorce and Second Marriage of Henry IV.**

At the request of Henry IV., Pope Clement VIII. granted him a divorce from Margaret of Valois in December, 1599. The king now gave a written promise to his new mistress, the beautiful Henriette d'Entragues, whom he created Marchioness of Verneuil. When this paper was shown to the Duke of Sully the great Minister tore it to pieces, and exerted himself to find a suitable partner for the king. Henry IV. chose Mary de Medici, daughter of the late Grand Duke of Tuscany, and the marriage took place in October, 1600. The fruit of this marriage were several children, the eldest of whom was born September 27, 1601, and was the immediate and prospective heir to his father's throne.

**Plot of the Duke of Savoy against Henry IV.**

The Peace of Vervins in 1598 required the Duke of Savoy to cede the marquisate of Saluces to France; but that prince retained that small territory in violation of the treaty, and in 1600 he proceeded to Paris to negotiate with King Henry IV. concerning it. The Duke of Savoy embraced the opportunity afforded by this visit to organize a

conspiracy against the French king, and induced many of the old members of the Catholic League to join in the plot.

His Hope and Desire.

The most prominent conspirator was Marshal de Biron, the king's old comrade in arms, and whom Henry IV. had esteemed as his most devoted friend. But Biron was ambitious and exceedingly vain. As Charles Emmanuel, Duke of Savoy, was satisfied with his work he returned to his duchy and refused to surrender the territory required by treaty. He hoped that the plot which he had instigated in Paris, and which aimed at the dismemberment of the French kingdom into feudal states under the suzerainty of King Philip III. of Spain, was in a fair way to become successful; and he was also anxious for war.

French Invasion of Savoy and Its Result.

Unconscious of the conspiracy at home, Henry IV. declared war against the Duke of Savoy, invaded his territory with an army in which Marshal de Biron held an important command, quickly overran the duchy of Savoy, and occupied Chamberry, its capital, August 21, 1600. Duke Charles Emmanuel was obliged to solicit peace, which he obtained only by surrendering the district of La Bresse, between Lyons and Geneva, in return for Saluces.

Marshal de Biron's Plots against Henry IV.

Upon his return to France, Henry IV. was informed of the conspiracy against him, and of Biron's share in the plot; and Biron, struck with dismay, made a full confession of his treason. The king generously pardoned him, and sent him on a diplomatic mission to England. But Biron failed to profit by the king's magnanimity, and renewed his treasonable designs and his intrigues with the enemies of France. His plots were discovered; and the king offered him an opportunity to confess his guilt, with the intention of granting him a pardon if he manifested any remorse; but Biron haughtily refused to acknowledge his treason, and was tried, convicted and sentenced by the Parliament of Paris, and beheaded July 31, 1602. This measure was as wise as it was severe, as it put an end to the plots against Henry IV., and secured the internal tranquillity of France. Henry IV. devoted the three years of unbroken peace which ensued to the improvement of his kingdom.

His Execution.

Treason and Pardon of the Duke of Bouillon.

By his recall of the Jesuits in 1603, and by his manifest desire to stand well with the Pope, Henry IV. alienated the Huguenots, whose leader, the Duke of Bouillon, even made overtures to King Philip III. of Spain. Thereupon that nobleman's capital, Sedan, was seized by the royal forces, which occupied it for four years; after which Henry IV. pardoned him and reinstated him in all his offices and honors, either through his natural leniency or through fear of offending the Protestant princes of Germany.

A favorite scheme of Henry IV. was the union of all the states of Christendom into a great Christian confederacy, in which the Lutheran,

**Scheme of Henry IV. for a Christian Union.**

Calvinistic and Catholic faiths should be tolerated and stand upon a footing of perfect equality, all disputes to be settled by arbitration in a diet or federal council in which all the states of the league would be represented, while commerce was to be freed from the restrictions which then paralyzed enterprise in the southern countries of Europe. Each of the states comprising the league was to be guaranteed the free and full enjoyment of its own political institutions.

**The States of this Union.**

This great Christian confederation was to consist of fifteen states, classified in three groups—six elective monarchies, embracing the Germano-Roman Empire, the Papal States, Venice, Bohemia, Hungary and Poland; six hereditary monarchies, comprising France, Spain, England with Scotland, Denmark with Norway, Sweden, and Savoy with Milan; and three federal republics, namely, the Dutch Republic, Switzerland, and a confederation of Italian republics consisting of Genoa, Lucca and the other small Italian states. The Czar of Russia was regarded as the ruler of a state more Asiatic than European, but was to be admitted to the league on his own application.

**Its Effect on the Spanish and Austrian Hapsburgs.**

An equilibrium between the great powers of Europe would have been established by the acceptance of this scheme, which would have weakened both branches of the princely House of Hapsburg—that of Spain by the loss of the Netherlands, Franche-Comté and Lombardy, and that of Austria by the loss of Bohemia, Hungary and the Tyrol; thus carrying out the desire of Henry IV. for weakening Spain and humbling Austria, both of which powers were too strong for the welfare of Europe. Henry IV. also hoped thus to put an end to the religious wars and disputes, and to establish a system of international law which should be binding upon all Europe. This grand scheme was cut short by its author's assassination, as we shall soon see.

**Efforts of Henry IV. against the Hapsburgs.**

As a preliminary part of his design, Henry IV. sought the humiliation of both branches of the House of Hapsburg. It was with this view that he aided the Protestants of Germany and Holland, and recommended the Pope to annex Naples and Sicily to the Papal States, thus severing Southern Italy from the dominion of the King of Spain. He also renounced the French claims upon Italy, thus seeking to deliver that country from all foreign dominion. He also intrigued with the oppressed Moriscoes of Spain; but the edict of King Philip III., expelling those Christianized Moors from Spain, frustrated the French king's efforts in their behalf.

**Alliance of Henry IV. with the German Protestants.**

For the purpose of humbling the Austrian House of Hapsburg, Henry IV. interfered in a dispute which broke out in Germany between the Protestant Union and the Catholic League in 1609. The death of Duke William of Cleves, Berg and Jülich in that year without heirs was followed by the seizure of those duchies by the Elector of

Bradenburg and the Count Palatine of Neuburg. By the Treaty of Halle, in January, 1610, Henry IV. agreed to support them with a French army of ten thousand men, thus arraying himself distinctly as the enemy of the Austrian Hapsburg, as the Emperor Rudolf II. claimed the hereditary territorial estates of the deceased Duke William as a lapsed fief.

**His Projected Invasion of Germany and Spain.**

Henry IV. commenced his military preparations on a vast scale. He collected an army of thirty thousand men for the invasion of Germany, one of fourteen thousand men to join the Duke of Savoy and attack Lombardy, and one of twenty-five thousand men along the Pyrenees to invade Spain. Henry IV. postponed his departure for the seat of war, in order to celebrate the coronation of his queen, Mary de Medici, whom he had already appointed regent during his absence from Paris. She was crowned with great splendor at St. Denis, May 13, 1610.

**His Gloomy Forebodings.**

In the midst of the festivities which enlivened Paris on the occasion of his queen's coronation, King Henry IV. wore a countenance of dejection, and seemed to take no pleasure in the festivities, his mind being distracted by the most gloomy forebodings, in fearful anticipation of a sudden and violent death.

**His Conversation with Bassompierre.**

The next day the good king's apprehensions were fatally realized. In reply to an expression of affection from one of his attendants, he said: "You do not know me now; but when you have lost me you will know my worth, and the difference between me and other men." Bassompierre then said to him: "Sire, will you never cease afflicting us by saying that you will soon die? You will live, if it please God, long and happy years. There is no felicity in the world equal to yours. You are in the flower of your age; in perfect health and strength of body, full of honor beyond any other mortal; in the tranquil enjoyment of the most flourishing kingdom, adored by your subjects, possessed of wealth, of fine, beautiful palaces, a handsome wife and fine children. What can you desire more?" The king only sighed, and said in reply: "All these I must quit!"

**Assassination of Henry IV. by Francois Ravaillac.**

In the afternoon of that day, May 14, 1610, he was driven in his coach in company with six noblemen to visit the Duke of Sully, who was then ill at his residence, the arsenal. While the coach became entangled in a crowd, a Jesuit named François Ravaillac jumped upon one of the hind wheels of the vehicle, reached over and stabbed the good king twice in the breast while he was reading a letter. The coach was driven back to the Louvre, to which it might be tracked all the way by the blood which flowed from it. The wounded monarch was at once laid upon a bed, surrounded by weeping officers, and soon breathed his last, dying in the fifty-eighth year of his age and the twenty-first

of his reign. His widowed queen, Mary de Medici, was proclaimed regent for his little son and successor, Louis XIII.

**Grief of the French People.**

The consternation and the public grief were universal throughout France, and never was the death of any other king so lamented by his subjects. The French poeple almost went wild with sorrow and mourning. The assassin Ravaillac was put to the torture to make him reveal his motives for the regicide and the names of his accomplices. But he made no revelations, and was executed with the most shocking cruelties, amid the curses of the enraged and excited populace, May 27, 1610.

**Good Character of Henry IV.**

Henry IV. was one of the greatest and best of France's kings. He was a brilliant and successful warrior, a profound statesman and a wise and vigorous ruler. France was rapidly increasing in power and prosperity under his enlightened and firm rule, and his death was a great misfortune to his kingdom. His memory as a sovereign has been justly hallowed by the admiration of posterity, and among all the Kings of France there is none whose name is so cherished to this day as that of Henry IV. His reign, like those of St. Louis and Louis XII., might serve as a model to all monarchs who love their subjects. He will always be honored for the clemency which he showed to his inveterate foes, the wisdom with which he tranquillized a kingdom distracted by civil wars for thirty-six years, and the enlightened toleration of which he gave a bright example himself and recommended the practice to his successors.

**Good Rule of Henry IV. and the Duke of Sully.**

Though much of the glory of the public works of Henry IV. undoubtedly belongs to the Duke of Sully, the good king deserves praise for selecting so good and great a statesman for his Minister, and for patiently bearing the reproofs which the Duke of Sully so frequently administered to him with almost republican boldness. The king was happy in having such a Minister, and the Minister was happy in having such a king; while the French nation was still more fortunate in enjoying so rare a combination as a wise and good sovereign and an able and patriotic administration of the government. The virtues of Henry IV. as a sovereign have caused posterity to throw the mantle of charity over the few serious vices and follies which marred his private character.

**Louis XIII., A. D. 1610–1643.**

As Louis XIII. was only eight years of age at the time of the assassination of his father, Henry IV., in 1610, the Dukes of Sully and Epernon at once took measures to secure the regency to the widowed queen, Mary de Medici, during the minority of her son. This

**The Regency.**

action was not strictly lawful, but all parties in France acquiesced in it, as the necessity for a peaceful adjustment of the government was urgent.

Mary de Medici and Her Policy.

The queen-regent, Mary de Medici, was a weak woman, of narrow understanding, and in no way adapted to the difficult and perilous situation which had been conferred upon her. She commenced her regency by retaining all the Ministers of her murdered husband, and confirming the Duke of Sully in the power and influence which he had exercised during the reign of Henry IV. The troops promised by Henry IV. were sent to the assistance of the German Protestants, and the Edict of Nantes was solemnly confirmed and renewed.

Her Italian Favorites.

But in the course of time the queen-regent surrendered herself entirely to the influence of her Italian favorites, especially to her foster-sister, Leonora Galigai, and her husband, Concino Concini, an obscure Florentine adventurer. Concini's wife was the first lady of the queen-mother's bed chamber; and Concini himself was rapidly raised from one post to another until he was created Marquis d'Ancre, and finally Marshal of France. Under the guidance of this Italian favorite and his wife, Mary de Medici organized a secret council or cabinet, consisting of Concini, the Jesuit Cotton, the Pope's Nuncio in France, and the Spanish ambassador at Paris, surrendering herself wholly to this clique.

Her Alliance with the Spanish and Austrian Hapsburgs.

Mary de Medici was induced by her new favorites and councilors to establish the most friendly relations with the Austrian and Spanish Hapsburgs, thus reversing the entire policy of her murdered husband. To strengthen this new alliance with Spain and Austria, a marriage was contracted between the youthful King Louis XIII. and the Infanta Anne of Austria; while the young French king's sister, the Princess Elizabeth, was betrothed to Philip, Prince of Asturias, the eldest son and heir of King Philip III. of Spain.

Resignation of the Duke of Sully.

The Duke of Sully viewed the queen-regent's foreign policy with deep regret, as he could not sanction such an overwhelming overthrow of the designs of Henry IV. for the humiliation of the Austrian and Spanish Hapsburgs. He vainly remonstrated with the queen-regent for making this alliance with the old enemies of France, and thus making the interests of France subservient to her new allies. As Mary de Medici persisted in her new foreign policy, the Duke of Sully resigned his office of Prince Minister in disgust and retired to his estate, in 1611, taking no further part in public affairs, though he was frequently consulted by the queen-regent during the rest of his life. He died in 1641, at the age of eighty-two.

Protestant Consolidation.

The alliance of the leading Catholic powers of Europe—France, Spain and Austria—occasioned a closer consolidation of the Protestant influence, thus hastening the inevitable conflict in Germany between Catholicism and Protestantism. The policy of the French court was to intimidate the Huguenots, who were too numerous to be won over

Intimidation of the Huguenots.

by gifts and pensions. They possessed two hundred fortified towns, had four thousand nobles in their ranks, and were able to muster an army of twenty-five thousand men.

Louis XIII. Assumes the Government.

Louis XIII. attained his majority September 27, 1614, at the ripe age of thirteen, and the next day he assumed the nominal charge of the government of France; though his mother, Mary de Medici, continued to exercise the real power in the kingdom. Just before the expiration of the regency she had granted one demand of the Prince of Condé by summoning the States-General, and that assembly convened at Paris, October 14, 1614. The three orders of France were numerously represented; and among the deputies of the clergy was Armand Duplessis de Richelieu, the young Bishop of Luçon, who was destined to achieve a world-wide fame as the greatest of the cardinal-statesmen of France. At the end of the session this young clerical summed up the demands of the nobility and the clergy in an eloquent address which attracted universal attention.

States-General Convened.

Richelieu.

The Dissensions and Dissolution of the States-General.

The session of the States-General was passed in wrangling, and the dissensions of the various orders enabled the government to put them off with promises which it never intended to fulfill. Their quarrels filled the entire French nation with disgust, and the young king rejoiced at seeing the national legislature of his realm give so complete a spectacle of its incapacity to discharge its duties. The Third Estate, or commons, having offended the queen, King Louis XIII. suddenly dissolved the States-General and forbade them ever to assemble again, March 24, 1615. This great national legislature was not again convoked untid 1789, one hundred and seventy-four years later, on the eve of the great French Revolution, as we shall see in a subsequent volume of this work.

Marriage of Louis XIII. with Anne of Austria.

Louis XIII. was married to Anne of Austria late in the year 1615. The Prince of Condé, who had twice taken up arms to force the French court to put an end to its intimate relations with Austria and Spain and to renew the alliances of Henry IV. against the two branches of the House of Hapsburg, bitterly opposed this royal marriage. He and his party were supported by the Parliament of Paris, which refused to register the decrees which the court issued to destroy that powerful leader and his partisans; and Mary de Medici was obliged to make lavish grants to him in order to silence his opposition.

Conde and the Parliament of Paris.

Conde's Opposition to Marshal d'Ancre.

The Prince of Condé was especially hostile to the queen-mother's Italian favorite, Marshal d'Ancre; and the marshal felt himself so unsafe at court that he took refuge in Normandy. It was believed that the Prince of Condé contemplated to remove the queen-mother from power by force; but in this design he encountered a formidable opponent in Richelieu, who had risen rapidly since the meeting of the

States General, and who now occupied a seat in the Council of State. This ambitious prelate supported the interests of Mary de Medici with great vigor; and Marshal d'Ancre, who had perceived Richelieu's talents, thought that he had now secured a useful instrument in the promotion of the ambitious bishop.

Conde Opposed by Richelieu

Richelieu soon took the decisive step of advising the queen-mother to arrest the Prince of Condé, who was accordingly taken into custody in August, 1616, as he was leaving the council chamber, and he was imprisoned in the Bastile. The other leaders of his party fled from Paris; but their adherents made an effort to excite an insurrection in the city, and plundered and destroyed Marshal d'Ancre's elegant mansion. The riot was soon quelled, and Marshal d'Ancre returned to the capital, but his insolence soon made him detested by all but the queen-mother. Richelieu was rewarded for his services against the Prince of Condé by being made Secretary of State, in November, 1616, through the influence of Marshal d' Ancre, who still congratulated himself on using the ambitious prelate as his instrument.

Arrest of Conde.

Riot Quelled.

Richelieu Made Secretary of State.

In 1616 Louis XIII. was sixteen years of age, and he was beginning to chafe under the restraints which his mother and her Italian favorite were imposing upon him. The young king thoroughly despised Marshal d'Ancre, and chose the Sieur de Luines, a young man of pleasing manners and great ambition, as his confidant. This man, who became the king's falconer, had an unbounded influence over Louis XIII., and sought to advance his own fortunes by prejudicing the young king against Marshal d'Ancre, who had also quarreled with Richelieu, who now felt sufficiently powerful to separate himself from the party of the queen and her Italian favorite. Thus there were two parties at the French court, led by the respective favorites of the king and his mother.

Louis XIII. and Sieur de Luines.

Marshal d'Acre Opposed by Louis XIII. and Richelieu.

The Sieur de Luines succeeded so well in his machinations against Marshal d'Ancre that the young king had the marshal arrested, April 24, 1617. The marshal having made a slight movement which was supposed to be an effort at resistance, he was shot down by the royal guard while on his way to the Louvre. The young king, who beheld the tragic scene from a window of the Louvre, cried aloud: "Thank you, good friends! I am now a king!"

Assassination of Marshal d'Ancre.

The populace of Paris hailed the assassination of Marshal d'Ancre with the greatest delight, and they disinterred his body, dragged it through the streets and burned it. The murdered marshal's wife was tried on a frivolous charge of sorcery, and was executed on the Place de Grève. The property of both the marshal and his wife was confiscated and conferred upon the young king's favorite. The queen-mother, Mary de Medici, was arrested on the day of the assassination

Indignities to His Body.

His Wife Executed.

Mary de Medici Exiled.

of her favorite, and was afterward exiled to Blois; while Richelieu was dismissed to his bishopric of Luçon.

**Elevation of the Sieur de Luines.**

The Sieur de Luines was now at the head of affairs in France. The new Council of State, like the old, favored the House of Hapsburg; and its policy hastened the Thirty Years' War in Germany. The king's favorite sought to enrich himself and his family. He was created a duke and a peer of France, was appointed Governor of the Isle de France and of Picardy, and received the daughter of the Duke de Montbazon in marriage. Two of his brothers likewise were made dukes. His rapacity soon made him universally unpopular, and the discontented French nobles gathered at the queen-mother's court at Blois, which became the seat of a most formidable and resolute opposition to King Louis XIII. and his favorite. The Duke d'Epernon rescued Mary de Medici from the Castle of Blois, February 22, 1619, and conducted her safely into the province of Angoulême.

**Opposition to Him and Louis XIII.**

**Rescue of Mary de Medici.**

**Reconciliation Effected by Richelieu.**

Louis XIII. and his favorite were seriously alarmed at the imminence of civil war. Conscious of his inability to confront the impending storm, the Sieur de Luines appealed to Richelieu, who had remained in quiet retirement, awaiting what he was aware of would be the consequence of the kingly favorite's effort at government. Richelieu hastened to the queen-mother's court, and succeeded in effecting a reconciliation between her and her son, thus averting the danger of civil war. The Prince of Condé was liberated from the Bastile, and joined the party of the king and the Sieur de Luines, who hoped that the released prince would prove a valuable ally against the queen-mother and her party.

**Conde's Release.**

**Rise of the Valtelline against the Swiss.**

In 1620 a dispute arose between France and Spain concerning the Valtelline territory in Northern Italy. This long and narrow valley, watered by the river Adda, and extending from Lake Como to the frontiers of the Tyrol, had formerly been under the dominion of the Dukes of Milan; but the last of the Sforzas had ceded it to the Swiss canton of Grisons. It was very important to the Spaniards during the wars in Germany, as it afforded a passage into that country from Milan. As the inhabitants of the Valtelline were Catholics they resisted the dominion of the Protestant Swiss. In July, 1620, they rose against their Swiss rulers, massacred all whom they got into their power, and solicited protection from the neighboring Spaniards. The Spaniards sent troops to sieze all the fortresses in the valley. The French government made a demand upon the Spanish court that the Spanish troops evacuate the Valtelline, and a treaty to that effect was signed in the spring of 1621, but was never carried into execution.

**Spanish Occupation of the Valtelline Ended by France.**

**Bearn Annexed by Louis XIII.**

King Louis XIII. now proceeded to annex the little Protestant province of Bearn, on the north side of the Pyrenees, to the crown of

France, and ordered the Roman Catholic religion to be reëstablished therein. This action of the king produced a revolt of the inhabitants of the province, whose cause was quickly espoused by the Huguenots throughout France. The king mustered an army to reduce the Huguenots to submission, and disgusted the entire kingdom by appointing the Sieur de Luines to the important and responsible office of Constable of France.

**Huguenot Revolt.**

The new religious war in France commenced in the spring of 1621. The Constable de Luines was utterly incompetent for the execution of the task imposed upon him. After some insignificant successes in Poitou, he besieged Montauban, the chief fortress of the Huguenots in the province of Languedoc, where his incapacity was completely manifested. Notwithstanding the efforts of the royal army, the advance of a Huguenot force under the Duke de Rohan forced King Louis XIII. to raise the siege, after he had lost eight thousand of his troops. The Constable de Luines died soon after this humiliation, December 14, 1621, from the effects of a malignant fever; his death being regretted by none, not even by the king.

**Failure of Louis XIII. in the Siege of Montauban.**

**Death of the Constable de Luines.**

The civil and religious war continued with vigor after the death of the incompetent Constable de Luines; and in 1622 the Huguenots experienced a great loss in the defection of Marshal Lesdiguières, one of the ablest soldiers of the time, who deserted the Huguenot cause, embraced the Catholic faith, and was made Constable of France by King Louis XIII. The revolt was crushed in the provinces of Languedoc and Guienne, and the city of Montpellier was finally compelled to surrender to the royal army. By the Peace of Montpellier, October 19, 1622, the Huguenots surrendered all the fortified towns guaranteed to them by the previous treaties, excepting the strongholds of Montauban and La Rochelle.

**Desertion of a Huguenot Leader.**

**Capture of Montpellier.**

**Peace of Montpellier.**

The office of Prime Minister had been made vacant by the death of the Constable de Luines; and it was for some time warmly contested by the queen-mother, Mary de Medici, and the Prince of Condé. Richelieu zealously supported the queen-mother, thus enabling her to triumph over her rival. Richelieu's genius had already commenced making itself felt in the royal councils, and his ambition became manifest to all. Men of all parties in France felt instinctively that he would make himself master of France when the opportunity presented itself, and all united in an effort to exclude the ambitious prelate from the Council of State. Louis XIII. personally disliked Richelieu, and long refused to admit him to any share of power; but the young king finally yielded to his mother's solicitations by fulfilling the promise which he had made to Richelieu long before, and accordingly asked the Pope to confer a cardinal's hat upon Richelieu.

**The Prime Ministry and Richelieu.**

**His Genius and Ambition.**

Richelieu Made a Cardinal.

His Holiness, Pope Gregory XV., created Richelieu a cardinal of the Holy Roman Church, September 5, 1622. This was only a step to the triumph of the great churchman and statesman. The weakness of the royal government was becoming more apparent daily, and the ambitious designs of Spain and Austria under the Hapsburgs were causing serious alarm in France. Louis XIII. changed his Ministers repeatedly, but none was found sufficiently competent to conduct France safely through the perplexities in which she was involved; and the young king was finally obliged to heed the urgent solicitations of his mother by summoning Cardinal Richelieu to a place in the Council of State, which was accordingly done April 26, 1624.

Called into the Council of State.

Cardinal Richelieu Made Prime Minister.

Louis XIII. had intended that Cardinal Richelieu should hold only a subordinate position in the Council of State, but the king was unable to prevent the genius of the great cardinal-statesman whom he had so reluctantly summoned to his aid from asserting itself. Before Richelieu had been in the council six months he was the real ruler of France; and the king, the court and the entire nation acknowledged his supremacy. He infused his indomitable energy into every branch of the public service, and the French government suddenly acquired a strength which was felt throughout the entire kingdom.

His Able Rule.

His Remark as to the Condition of France.

Cardinal Richelieu himself alluded to the condition of France when he came into power as follows: "I may say with truth that at the time of my entrance upon office the Huguenots divided the power of the state with Your Majesty; that the great nobles conducted themselves as if they were not your subjects, and the governors of provinces as if they were independent subjects in their own dominions. Foreign alliances were depreciated and misunderstood; private interests preferred to those of the state; and, in a word, the majesty of the crown was degraded to such a depth of abasement that it was scarcely to be recognized at all."

His Three Great Objects.

From the moment that Richelieu entered upon the office of Prime Minister of France he pursued a consistent and undeviating policy, the principal objects of which were the destruction of the Huguenots as a political party, the firm establishment of the royal authority over the nobility of France, and the reëstablishment of French ascendency in Europe by the systematic humiliation of the Austrian House of Hapsburg.

His Protestant Alliances.

In pursuance of his policy, Cardinal Richelieu endeavored to weaken the German Empire and Spain by forming an alliance between France and the Protestant powers of Northern Europe. His first step was the negotiation of a marriage between Charles, Prince of Wales, son of King James I. of England, and the Princess Henrietta Maria, a sister of King Louis XIII. A match which had previously been ar-

Royal Intermarriage with England.

ranged between this British prince and a Spanish infanta was broken off, and the marriage arranged by Richelieu occurred in May, 1625.

French Aid to the German Protestants and Occupation of the Valtelline.

Cardinal Richelieu furnished the German Protestants with funds, and permitted them to enlist troops in France; while a French army was sent into the Valtelline, which was held by the Austrians and the Spaniards, and which furnished them a direct communication between Northern Italy and the Tyrol. A campaign of several weeks ended in the complete expulsion of the Austrian forces from the Valtelline, all the fortresses of which were occupied by French troops. Pope Urban VIII. looked with open disfavor upon Cardinal Richelieu's attacks upon the principal Catholic powers of Europe, and protested against his course; but Richelieu told the Pope very plainly that, while he acknowledged his duties as a prince of the Roman Catholic Church, his first allegiance was due to France, whose interests and dignity were his first objects under any and all circumstances.

Richelieu and Pope Urban VIII.

Huguenot Revolt and Defeat.

Cardinal Richelieu was obliged to suspend the operation of his plans against Austria, in consequence of an unexpected revolt of the Huguenots under the Dukes de Rohan and Soubise in the summer of 1625. Richelieu proceeded with vigor against the Huguenot rebels; and, with the aid of a fleet furnished by Protestant England and Protestant Holland, he defeated the Huguenot fleet off La Rochelle, and reduced that Huguenot stronghold to great extremities.

Peace with the Huguenots and Treaty with Spain.

Richelieu was obliged to make peace with the Huguenots in consequence of the existence of a formidable conspiracy against his power and his life; and in February, 1626, the Huguenots were granted favorable terms. In March of the same year a treaty was made with Spain, France restoring the Valtelline to the Swiss canton of the Grisons, from which it had been wrested by Spain and Austria in 1620. Richelieu was subjected to severe censure and ridicule for his leniency to the Huguenots on this occasion, but he was well aware that the time had not yet come for the success of his plans.

Plot of Gaston, Duke of Anjou, against Richelieu.

The plot against Cardinal Richelieu's power had been skillfully organized by Gaston, Duke of Anjou, the only brother of King Louis XIII., and included many of the leading nobles of France. The young queen was also a party to it. The conspirators intended to assassinate the cardinal-statesman at his country seat, and to make Gaston his successor in power. Richelieu discovered the plot. Gaston betrayed his confederates, and threw himself upon the mercy of his brother, the king, who rewarded Gaston's treachery by making him Duke of Orleans, with the immense revenues of that duchy; but the other conspirators were beheaded or exiled. The young queen was summoned before the Council of State, and was severely reprimanded for her share in the conspiracy, thus increasing the coldness which

Gaston Betrays His Accomplices and Is Made Duke of Orleans.

for some time had existed between herself and her royal husband. Thenceforth the queen and the cardinal-statesman were avowed enemies. In consequence of this conspiracy, Richelieu's power became more firmly established than ever.

**Royal Edict against Dueling.**

In 1627 Cardinal Richelieu gave a startling evidence of the vigor with which he intended to humble the French nobles by bringing them to the foot of the throne. A royal ordinance was issued against dueling, which had become a serious evil among the gallants of the French court. In defiance of this royal ordinance, the Counts de Bouteville and Des Chapelles engaged in a desperate encounter in the Place Royale at Paris. They were arrested by Richelieu's order, tried, convicted, and beheaded with a grim firmness which filled the entire French nobility with terror.

**Execution of Two Duelists.**

**Another Huguenot Revolt at La Rochelle.**

In 1627 the Huguenots of La Rochelle again revolted, and this time England sided with the Huguenots against King Louis XIII. The Duke of Buckingham, the Prime Minister of King Charles I. of England, had conceived a foolish feeling for the queen of Louis XIII.; and Richelieu exposed and ridiculed this. For the purpose of obtaining revenge upon the cardinal-statesman of France, the Duke of Buckingham induced the English king to aid the Huguenots. The Huguenot cause was popular in England, and the Huguenots might have derived some advantage from this alliance had a more popular leader than the Duke of Buckingham been chosen to lead the English fleet of one hundred vessels and the English land force sent to the relief of La Rochelle in July, 1627.

**English Aid to the Huguenots.**

**Siege of La Rochelle by Richelieu.**

Cardinal Richelieu in the meantime had made extraordinary exertions for the reduction of La Rochelle. With a splendidly-equipped and powerful army he laid siege to the Huguenot stronghold, and proved himself an able general as well as a great statesman. The Huguenots made a heroic defense, but the English fleet which attempted to relieve the beleaguered stronghold was defeated with great loss. The Duke of Buckingham then sailed back to England, thus leaving the Huguenots to defend their stronghold single-handed against the royal forces of France.

**English Fleet Defeated.**

**Two English Fleets Obliged to Retire.**

Richelieu closely invested La Rochelle by land, and constructed a mole across the mouth of the harbor, which he fortified, thus cutting off relief for the city by sea. Two English fleets sent to the relief of the starving Huguenots of La Rochelle were unable to enter the harbor on account of the barrier which Richelieu had erected there, and consequently retired. After a siege of fifteen months, during which half of the inhabitants perished from famine, and during which the Huguenot garrison was reduced to less than two hundred men, La Rochelle surrendered to Richelieu, October 28, 1628.

**Fall of La Rochelle.**

Richelieu's Moderation and Toleration.

The triumphant cardinal-statesman used his victory with moderation. He declared that the age of persecution for conscience sake had gone by, and that the king had waged war upon the people of La Rochelle not as Huguenots but as rebels. He confirmed the people of the conquered town in the exercise of their religion, but punished them for their rebellion by depriving them of their political rights and destroying the fortifications of the city. Montauban, the last Huguenot stronghold, surrendered in August, 1629; and the Huguenots ceased to exist as a political party.

Fall of Montauban.

Spanish Designs in Italy Foiled by Richelieu.

Spain took advantage of Richelieu's civil war with the Huguenots to try to injure France in Italy by driving the Duke de Nevers, a French nobleman, from the duchies of Mantua and Montferrat, to which he had just succeeded. After the capture of La Rochelle, Cardinal Richelieu induced King Louis XIII. to lead a French army of thirty-six thousand men across the Alps into Italy, in March, 1629, to aid the Duke of Mantua and Montferrat. Charles Emmanuel the Great, Duke of Savoy, who was an enemy of France, was forced to make a treaty of peace; and the Spaniards were compelled to relinquish their designs upon Mantua and Montferrat.

The Duke of Savoy's Alliance with Spain and Austria.

No sooner had the French recrossed the Alps than the Spaniards and the Austrians again invaded Mantua and occupied the territory of the Grisons. The Duke of Savoy entered into a secret alliance with the Spaniards and the Austrians, and prepared to prevent the French army from passing through his territory into Italy. Cardinal Richelieu received the chief command of the French army, and appointed Marshals Bassompierre and Schomberg as his lieutenants. He marched rapidly into Savoy, took Pignerol after a siege of three days, and also captured a number of other fortresses in the duchy. The French forces soon overran Savoy and the marquisate of Saluces, so that the allies were obliged to make peace.

French Occupation of Savoy.

Treaty of Cherasco.

By the Treaty of Cherasco, in April, 1631, the Austrians evacuated Mantua, and the Emperor Ferdinand II. of Germany invested the Duke de Nevers with the duchy. Victor Amadeus I., Duke of Savoy, was forced to cede Pignerol and two other fortresses to France. One of the most prominent negotiators of this treaty was Giulio Mazarini, then an agent of Pope Urban VIII. at the ducal court of Savoy, and afterward so famous in French history as Cardinal Mazarin.

Giulio Mazarini.

Plots against Richelieu

Though Richelieu was successful against the enemies of France, he now found himself surrounded by personal enemies, and numerous plots were formed against him. King Louis XIII. was attacked with a dangerous illness at Lyons, while on his way to join the French army in Italy. The queen-mother, Mary de Medici, had become an enemy of Cardinal Richelieu, because she found that she could not rule him,

**Mary de Medici Seeks His Overthrow.**

as she before supposed that she could. She took advantage of the king's illness to extort a promise from him that he would dismiss the great cardinal-statesman from office. Louis XIII. consented on condition that no step should be taken against Richelieu until the termination of the war in Italy. When the king recovered his health he manifested a reluctance to deprive himself and his kingdom of the services of his great Prime Minister; but the clamors of his wife, his mother and his courtiers for the dismissal of the cardinal-statesman became louder daily.

**Richelieu's Quarrel with Mary de Medici.**

In the meantime Cardinal Richelieu returned to court, and finally he quarreled with the queen-mother in the king's presence. Louis XIII. ended the quarrel by leaving the palace and proceeding to Versailles. The entire court now considered the great Prime Minister's ruin inevitable, and his enemies openly manifested their exultation. The cardinal-statesman himself was confident that he would be disgraced, and was surprised when he received a summons to meet the king at Versailles. Louis XIII. received Richelieu very cordially, assuring him that he would not listen to any charges against him, and that he would remove from court all who were able or disposed to injure him or thwart his plans. The day upon which these events occurred—November 11, 1630—is still known in France as *The Day of Dupes.*

**The Day of Dupes.**

**Richelieu's Action.**

Cardinal Richelieu now proceeded to take vigorous action against those who had sought to injure him, causing Marshal de Marillac to be executed on a charge of peculation, and banishing his brother, the keeper of the seals, to Chateaudun.

**Banishment, Exile and Death of Mary de Medici.**

Richelieu then tried to persuade King Louis XIII. that there could be no peace at court until the queen-mother was compelled to cease her plottings. The king was very much averse to adopt any stringent measures against his mother; but a fresh rebellion of his brother Gaston, Duke of Orleans, in 1631, said to have been instigated by Mary de Medici, induced Louis XIII. to take a decisive step against her. She was banished from court and sent to Compiègne. Several days afterward the king ordered her to retire to Moulins. She refused to obey her son's order, and fled across the north-eastern frontier of France to the Spanish rulers at Brussels. This step was fatal to her, as Louis XIII. sternly refused to permit her to return to France; and she died in exile at Cologne in 1642, the very year of Richelieu's death.

**Rebellions and Flight of Gaston, Duke of Orleans.**

The rebellion of Gaston, Duke of Orleans, was suppressed, his estates were confiscated, and he took refuge in Lorraine; but, as he was denied shelter in that province, he fled to Brussels. His followers were imprisoned or exiled. The king's brother continued his plottings at

Brussels, and induced a number of discontented French nobles to join in his schemes, among them the Duke de Montmorenci, one of the most illustrious men in France. Gaston invaded France with a small force in 1632, but his army was defeated by the royal troops, and he was again obliged to seek refuge in exile. The saddest result of this unhappy insurrection was the execution of Duke Henry de Montmorenci, who was beheaded at Toulouse, October 30, 1632.

**Execution of Henry de Montmorenci.**

The Thirty Years' War in Germany had now been in progress for more than a decade. In accordance with his policy for weakening the Austrian House of Hapsburg, Richelieu entered into an alliance with King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden in 1631, as already noticed; promising him an annual subsidy of four hundred thousand crowns, and thus openly taking sides with the German Protestants against their Emperor and the Catholic League of Germany.

**Franco-Swedish Alliance in the Thirty Years' War.**

After the death of Gustavus Adolphus in the moment of victory on the bloody field of Lutzen in 1632, Richelieu renewed his alliance with Sweden by a treaty with the Swedish Chancellor, Axel Oxenstiern. The victory of the German imperialists at Nördlingen in September, 1634, appeared to establish the success of the Emperor Ferdinand II.; but Richelieu went about vigorously to neutralize its effects. Accordingly, under her great Prime Minister's direction, France concluded treaties of alliance with Sweden, Holland, the Protestant princes of Germany, Switzerland, and the Duke of Savoy; France agreeing to put four large armies in the field, numbering in the aggregate one hundred and twenty thousand men.

**Richelieu's Alliance with Oxenstiern.**

**France's Other Alliances.**

The events of the next three years were unfavorable to France. In 1636 the German imperial army advanced into the French province of Picardy and seriously menaced Paris, but the imperialists were finally obliged to retire with considerable loss. In 1638 the tide turned in favor of the French. Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, who had entered the service of France, captured several fortresses on the Upper Rhine, and defeated the German imperial army at Rheinfeld, March 3, 1638. In December of the same year he captured the strong fortress of Breisach after a siege of six months. The events of 1639 were also favorable to the French; and, after the death of Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, Richelieu annexed Alsace to France. In Italy the French under the Count d'Harcourt defeated the German imperialists in Piedmont, overran that country, and captured Turin in September, 1640, after a siege of more than four months. In the same year the French drove the Spaniards from Artois and annexed that province to the crown of France.

**French Victories under Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar.**

**Annexation of Alsace.**

**French Victories in Italy.**

**Annexation of Artois.**

In the meantime Cardinal Richelieu's good fortune did not desert him. He discovered a secret correspondence between the queen and the

**The Queen's Treason.**

Spaniards at Brussels, and the queen was so terrified by the discovery of her offense that she confessed her fault to Richelieu and signed a solemn pledge never to commit a similar offense. The cardinal-statesman sought to bring about a reconciliation between Louis XIII. and his queen, in which he succeeded to the satisfaction of both husband and wife. The royal couple had been married for over twenty years, but thus far had no children. Anne now gave birth to a son at the palace of St. Germains, September 5, 1638, who became the heir to the French throne.

Royal Reconciliation.

Birth of an Heir.

Plot and Execution of Cinq-Mars and De Thou.

Richelieu had selected the gay and brilliant Marquis of Cinq-Mars as the king's companion; but when the cardinal-statesman endeavored to check this nobleman's ambitious schemes the marquis organized a formidable conspiracy against Richelieu, and began a treasonable correspondence with the Spaniards. Richelieu detected this conspiracy, and procured a copy of the treaty which the conspirators had made with Spain. The Marquis of Cinq-Mars was arrested, along with De Thou, another conspirator; and both were executed at Lyons, September 12, 1642.

Annexation of Roussillon and Sedan.

In the same year the French took Perpignan from the Spaniards, thus completing the conquest of the province of Roussillon, which was annexed to France. The principality of Sedan also became one of the possessions of the French crown, having been confiscated as a penalty imposed on the Duke of Bouillon for his complicity in the plot of the Marquis of Cinq-Mars.

Richelieu's Greatness.

Cardinal Richelieu was now at the height of his power and greatness. He was supreme in France, and had made his country great at home and feared abroad. He had given his king the first place in France, and had given France the first place in Europe. He had humbled the Huguenots and the French nobles at home, and had humiliated the proud House of Hapsburg and all the other foreign enemies of France; but all this time he was sinking under a mortal disease, and he died December 4, 1642, in the fifty-eighth year of his age.

His Death.

French Academy Founded.

Richelieu was a great patron of science and literature, and many scientific and literary institutions in France date from his time. He founded the *French Academy* in 1635, for the purpose of improving the French language and the literary taste of the French people.

## SECTION II.—ANNE OF AUSTRIA AND CARDINAL MAZARIN (A. D. 1642–1661).

Remark of Louis XIII.

Louis XIII., who owed his proud position in France and Europe entirely to Richelieu's able statesmanship and diplomacy, coldly re-

marked upon hearing of his great Prime Minister's death: "There is a great politician gone." The only change which the king made in the Ministry selected by Richelieu was to assign a seat in the Council of State to the Italian Cardinal Mazarin. Cardinal Mazarin.

In less than six months King Louis XIII. followed his great Prime Minister to the grave, dying at the palace of St. Germains, May 14, 1643, on the anniversary of his illustrious father's assassination, having thus reigned exactly thirty-three years, A. D. 1610–1643. Louis XIII. left the regency for his little son and successor, Louis XIV., to his widow, Anne of Austria, and appointed his brother, Gaston, Duke of Orleans, to the office of Lieutenant-General of the kingdom. The king's will also appointed a Council of State, consisting of Cardinal Mazarin, the Prince of Condé, the Chancellor Seguier, and Chavigny and Bouthillier, Secretaries of State. Death of Louis XIII. Louis XIV. A. D 1643–1715. Regency of Anne of Austria.

As soon as the queen-mother, Anne of Austria, was confirmed in the regency she dismissed the Council of Regency and made Mazarin her Prime Minister—a selection which surprised all parties, as Mazarin had been the faithful subordinate of Richelieu, her old enemy. But the choice was good, as Mazarin was a man of great genius; and, as Louis XIV. was not yet five years old, the queen-regent very well knew that she would need a competent adviser during her little son's long minority, and she therefore selected the one best adapted to the position. Cardinal Mazarin, Prime Minister.

Cardinal Mazarin's policy and aims were the same as those of his illustrious predecessor, Richelieu, and he prosecuted the war against Austria and Spain with great vigor. The German imperialists resumed hostilities immediately upon Richelieu's death; while the Spanish forces from the Netherlands laid siege to the fortress of Rocroi, but were decisively defeated by the French under the Duke d'Enghien in the battle of Rocroi, May 19, 1643. His Policy. Battle of Rocroi.

The French arms in Germany, under Marshal Turenne and the Duke d'Enghien, defeated the imperialists at Nördlingen, August 7, 1645. The Duke d'Enghien, with the assistance of the Dutch fleet under Admiral Van Tromp, took the important sea-port of Dunkirk, on the North Sea, from the Spaniards, in October, 1646. The Duke d'Enghien returned to France in 1647, and succeeded to the title of Prince of Condé upon his father's death about the same time. Second Battle of Nordlingen. Capture of Dunkirk

Cardinal Mazarin, who dreaded the new Prince of Condé's influence at court, sent the great general to Catalonia to aid the revolted Catalans against the Spaniards. The Prince of Condé laid siege to Lerida in May, 1647; but he was obliged to raise the siege, in spite of his great genius; whereupon he returned to France in utter disgust, and bitterly reproached Mazarin for failing to sustain him. Mazarin Mazarin and Conde. Siege of Lerida.

was profuse in his excuses, and immediately appointed the Prince of Condé to the command of the French army in Flanders. The great general took the town of Ypres in May, 1648, drove the German imperial troops out of the French province of Picardy, and defeated the imperial army under Archduke Leopold at Lens, in Artois, August, 1648.

Conde's New Victories.

In the meantime the French arms under Marshal Turenne also triumphed in Germany. In 1648 Turenne, in conjunction with the Swedes, defeated the German imperial army under the Italian general Montecuculi near Augsburg, and would have marched upon Vienna had he not been prevented by a sudden rise of the river Inn.

Success of Turenne in Germany.

The successes of the French arms, particularly the victory at Lens, hastened the peace negotiations, which had been in progress for five years, to a conclusion; and the Treaty of Westphalia, October 24, 1648, ended the Thirty Years' War, as already noticed. This famous treaty was highly advantageous to France, which received all of Alsace except Strasburg, thus extending her eastern frontier to the Rhine. The town of Breisach, on the east side of the Rhine, was ceded to France; while the fortress of Philipsburg was to be garrisoned by French troops. The three bishoprics of Toul, Verdun and Metz were confirmed to France, in whose possession they now had been for almost a century; and the duchy of Lorraine was also virtually ceded to France by being left to her until an amicable arrangement could be effected with its dispossessed duke. France also obtained the fortress of Pignerol, in Piedmont.

Peace of Westphalia.

France's Gains.

Thus the Thirty Years' War had been, on the whole, favorable to France. The power of the Austrian House of Hapsburg had been humbled, and the Germano-Roman Empire was practically destroyed, while France had become the leading power of Europe. France and Spain, however, did not come to terms; and the war between them lasted eleven years longer.

France's Prestige Raised.

In the very year that the Thirty Years' War closed, France began to be distracted by serious internal troubles. Cardinal Mazarin's rapacity and misgovernment, which had full sway in consequence of his complete influence over the queen-regent, Anne of Austria, was rapidly involving the French kingdom in serious financial embarrassments, which eventually brought on a disastrous civil war. Richelieu had left a full treasury, but the resources which he had so carefully husbanded were soon squandered by Mazarin, and recourse was had to the most oppressive and obnoxious expedients in order to meet the enormous expenses of the war and the extravagance of the court.

France's Internal Troubles.

An impost levied upon all merchandise brought into Paris for sale by land or water, and levied upon all classes indiscriminately, en-

LOUIS XIII AND RICHELIEU

From the Painting by V. Brozik

countered serious opposition on the part of the Parliament of Paris, thus arraying that tribunal in direct antagonism to the French crown. The quarrel increased in bitterness daily; and finally the court was guilty of a serious error in taking advantage of the rejoicings which greeted the intelligence of the great French victory at Lens, to arrest three of the chief leaders of the opposition in the Parliament of Paris—Blancmesnil, Broussel and Charton.

Collision between the French Crown and the Parliament of Paris.

The populace of Paris had sided with the Parliament from the very beginning of the troubles, and when the three popular leaders were arrested the Parisians rose in open revolt against the government and barricaded the principal streets; while an angry mob surrounded the Palais Royal, demanding the release of Broussel, who was extremely popular. The Cardinal de Retz, Archbishop Coadjutor of Paris, represented to the queen-mother, Anne of Austria, the danger of the situation, and urged her to comply with the popular demand by releasing Broussel; but the queen-mother refused to release the popular leader, and troops were marched into the Palais Royal to protect the court.

Popular Revolt in Paris.

The Queen-regent's Obstinacy.

Cardinal de Retz joined the rebels when the queen-regent refused to take his advice, and became one of the chief leaders of the insurrection. The next day, August 27, 1648, the outbreak showed such vigor and such alarming signs of spreading that the queen-regent released the arrested members of the Parliament of Paris; and they returned to the city the next day, amid the rejoicings of the populace. The affair appeared settled for the time, but the trouble had only really commenced, so that August 27, 1648, may be considered the date of the beginning of the four years' civil war known as the *War of the Fronde*.

Imprisoned Popular Leaders Released.

Civil Wars of the Fronde.

Order appeared to be restored outwardly; but the Parliament of Paris proved so insolent and unmanageable that the queen-regent retired from Paris with the boy king and Cardinal Mazarin, and went to Rueil. The intervention of the Prince of Condé brought about a reconciliation between the queen-regent and the Parliament of Paris in October, 1648, Anne of Austria granting the demands of the Parliament unconditionally. The queen-regent shed tears while signing this document, which she declared to be the suicide of the royal authority in France.

The Queen-regent's Submission to the Parliament of Paris.

Soon afterward the Prince of Condé became disgusted with the arrogance and insubordination of the Perisian populace, and offered his services to the court to reduce them to submission. He collected an army of eight thousand men near Paris; and the queen-regent, the boy king and the rest of the royal family, accompanied by Cardinal Mazarin, secretly retired from Paris to St. Germians, January 6, 1649. At the same time a royal order was issued commanding the

Conde's Support of the Queen-regent.

**Fresh Trouble with the Parliament of Paris.**

Parliament of Paris to transfer its sittings to Montargis. The Parliament refused to obey this command, at the same time denouncing Cardinal Mazarin as a public enemy and demanding his banishment from France.

**The Fronde Supported by Nobles and Marshal Turenne.**

Many of the leading nobles of France espoused the cause of the Fronde, which was likewise sustained by most of the provincial parliaments of the kingdom. There was fighting between the troops of the Prince of Condé and the forces of the Parliament of Paris near that city, but the cause of the Fronde gained strength daily. Marshal Turenne joined the Fronde, thus furnishing the popular party with a great military leader able to cope with the Prince of Condé on the royal side. The rebels were also promised assistance by the Archduke Leopold, the Governor of the Spanish Netherlands.

**Treaty of Rueil and Cardinal Mazarin's Triumph.**

The court now desired peace, and Mazarin negotiated a treaty with a deputation from the Parliament of Paris headed by the president, Molé, at Rueil, March 11, 1649. The conditions of the treaty were not as favorable as the Parliament had desired, and that body at first refused to register it. The infuriated mob of Paris threatened to assassinate Molé and the other members of the Parliamentary deputation which had negotiated the treaty. By modifying some of the most objectionable provisions of the treaty, Cardinal Mazarin secured its acceptance by the Parliament of Paris. He likewise gained over the leading officers of Marshal Turenne's army, who deserted the marshal and espoused the cause of the court. Thereupon Marshal Turenne retired into Holland, thus leaving the Fronde without a competent military leader. The court returned to Paris in August, 1649.

**Conde's Arrest and Imprisonment.**

The Prince of Condé, who presumed upon the great services which he had rendered the state, now endeavored to secure control of the entire power of the government. His insolence and insubordination became so intolerable that the queen-regent and Cardinal Mazarin resolved to arrest him. The Prince of Condé, and also his brother, the Prince of Conti, and his brother-in-law, the Duke de Longueville, were arrested in the council chamber January 18, 1650, and were imprisoned in the Castle of Vincennes.

**Revolts of His Partisans.**

The partisans of the Prince of Condé thereupon rose in arms against the court. The province of Burdundy, of which he was governor, openly revolted; and the Duchess de Longueville excited outbreaks in Normandy, of which province her husband was governor. The city of Bordeaux took up arms for the Prince of Condé, placing itself under the orders of the fearless and devoted Princess of Condé, the niece of Cardinal Richelieu.

**The Revolts Suppressed.**

The royal troops soon restored tranquillity in Normandy, and soon also reduced Burgundy to submission. Bordeaux was forced to surrender, after a siege, during which the Princess of Condé displayed

the greatest heroism. The princess and her partisans were permitted to retire peaceably to their estates, but the court resolutely refused her petition for the release of her husband and his fellow-captives. Marshal Turenne, who had been joined by a Spanish force, won some important successes in the province of Picardy; but he was thoroughly defeated near Rhetel by the Marshal du Plessis-Praslin, December 15, 1650, whereupon he fled into the province of Lorraine with a few followers.

**Flight of Marshal Turenne.**

The triumph of the court now appeared complete; but a reaction set in at Paris in favor of the imprisoned princes, and the leaders of the original Fronde headed a coalition against Cardinal Mazarin. The Parliament of Paris demanded the banishment of the cardinal-statesman, who became so terrified by the strength of the opposition that he fled secretly to Havre, February 8, 1651. The queen-regent prepared to follow him with the boy king; but she was prevented from doing so by the leaders of the Fronde, who insisted upon entering the palace to satisfy themselves of the presence of the court.

**New Outbreak in Paris and Flight of Mazarin.**

In the meantime Cardinal Mazarin hastened to Havre and ordered the release of the captive princes, hoping to gain their support by his promptness; but they treated him coldly, and hastened to Paris after their liberation. The cardinal-statesman retired to Bruhl, in the territory of Cologne, whence he maintained a correspondence with the queen-regent, by which he continued to direct the affairs of state in France.

**Release of Conde.**

**Mazarin's Self Exile.**

The Prince of Condé expected to find himself supreme in power when he returned to Paris; but he discovered that the queen-regent was still bitterly hostile to him, and that the leaders of the Fronde were disinclined to acknowledge his authority. The queen-regent finally brought matters to a crisis by accusing him before the Parliament of Paris of being guilty of a treasonable correspondence with the Spaniards. The Prince of Condé was so enraged by this accusation that he hastened to his province of Guienne, where he headed an open armed rebellion against the court.

**Conde's New Revolt against the Queen-regent.**

The queen-regent now declared her son of age, and accordingly young Louis XIV. took his place at the head of the army designed to take the field against the Prince of Condé. Cardinal Mazarin now boldly returned to Paris and rejoined the court; and Marshal Turenne, who had made his peace with the court, was assigned a command in the royal army.

**Young King Louis XIV.**

**Mazarin's Return.**

A desultory warfare followed without any decisive result for either party; and late in the spring of 1652 both armies—the royalists under Marshal Turenne, and the Frondeurs under the Prince of Condé—marched to Paris, which had not yet pronounced for either party. A

**Battle of St Antoine, in Paris.**

desperate battle was fought in the Faubourg St. Antoine, July 2, 1652, which was decided by Mademoiselle de Montpensier, the daughter of the Duke of Orleans, who caused the cannon of the Bastile to open fire upon the royal forces at the critical moment. Thereupon the citizens threw open the Porte St. Antoine, thus allowing the army of the Prince of Condé to enter the city. Marshal Turenne, who had felt confident of victory, then retreated to St. Denis.

Conde's Victory over Turenne.

The Prince of Condé was master of Paris for some time, and it appeared that the capital was about to fully espouse the cause of the Fronde; but the fickle Parisians suddenly changed sides and commenced treating with the youthful king. The Prince of Condé found his influence wholly destroyed by the trickery of the Cardinal de Retz; and he accordingly retired from Paris in utter disgust, in October, 1652, and joined the Spanish army under the Duke of Lorraine.

Fickleness of the Parisians.

Conde's Flight.

Louis XIV. and his mother, escorted by Marshal Turenne's army, entered Paris several days afterward, amid the rejoicings of the populace, and occupied the Louvre. The young king granted a general amnesty, from which the Prince of Condé, the Duke of Beaufort and several other leaders of the Fronde were especially excepted. The Prince of Condé was condemned to death as a traitor. The Duke of Orleans was ordered to retire to Blois, where he died in 1660. The Cardinal de Retz, who had been the most active man in France in fomenting the troubles, was imprisoned in Vincennes. He was afterward liberated from prison, but the rest of his life was passed in obscurity.

Triumph of the Royal Family.

Punishment of the Fronde Leaders.

Thus ended the civil war of the Fronde, which had agitated France for four years, A. D. 1648–1652. It was the final struggle of the feudal nobility of France against absolute royal power. It had produced the greatest discomfort and even actual privation upon the royal family of France, and its effect was to confirm Louis XIV. in his ideas of despotic rule. The French nobles utterly failed in their efforts to limit the royal power, and the failure of the revolt enabled the young king to erect an absolute monarchy in France.

Absolute Royal Power in France.

As the civil war of the Fronde was now ended, Cardinal Mazarin was able to direct his attention to the war with Spain. The Spaniards had profited greatly by the internal troubles of France; having recovered Dunkirk, Ypres and Gravelines in the Netherlands, Barcelona and Catalonia in Spain, and Casale in Northern Italy. The Spanish army on the frontier of Picardy was now under the command of the Prince of Condé, and that able general ravaged the French territory as far as the Somme during the summer of 1653. The French army under Marshal Turenne, though inferior in numbers, was able to hold his great adversary in check during the entire campaign.

Spanish Successes.

Spanish Armies Led by Conde.

Conde's Failure in the Siege of Arras.

In 1654 the Prince of Condé and the Archduke Leopold, at the head of twenty-five thousand Spanish troops, laid siege to Arras, the capital of the valuable province of Artois. Though the siege was conducted with great ability, Marshal Turenne forced the Prince of Condé to raise it and to retreat, leaving three thousand prisoners in the hands of the victorious French. The campaign of 1656 was remarkable for one of the Prince of Condé's most brilliant exploits. He attacked the French division under Marshal de la Ferté, which was separated from Turenne's main army, then engaged in the siege of Valenciennes; almost annihilated it, and took the marshal himself, with nearly all his officers and four thousand of his troops, prisoners.

Spanish Victory under Conde.

England's Alliance with France.

Cardinal Mazarin now induced the Commonwealth of England, then under the iron rule of its famous Lord Protector, Oliver Cromwell, to enter into an alliance with France against Spain. An English force of six thousand infantry under General Reynolds reinforced Marshal Turenne, who captured Montmedy, St. Venant and Mardyke in 1656; the last fortress being turned over to the English, by whom it was at once garrisoned.

Siege of Dunkirk.

The allied French and English forces then laid siege to Dunkirk. A Spanish army under the Prince of Condé and Don John of Austria marched to the relief of the beleaguered fortress, but was defeated with heavy loss by Marshal Turenne in the battle of the Dunes, June 14, 1658. The immediate result of this French victory was the surrender of Dunkirk, which France ceded to England in accordance with the treaty of alliance. Marshal Turenne then proceeded to the reduction of Gravelines, and overran Flanders, advancing to within two days' march of Brussels.

Battle of the Dunes and Fall of Dunkirk.

Spain and the Franco-German Alliance.

Spain was so dispirited by her reverses that she now desired peace; her anxiety on the point being increased by the formation of a coalition between France and the German states to uphold the Treaty of Westphalia—a league which virtually isolated Spain from the rest of Europe.

Previous German Aid to Spain.

Ever since the Peace of Westphalia the Emperor Ferdinand III., though nominally at peace with France, had been indirectly supplying the Spaniards with money and troops. Duke Charles of Lorraine, who had been driven from his duchy by the French, gladly enlisted German imperial troops under his own banners, and gained many advantages in Flanders and on the frontiers of Germany. To resist his ravages, the Elector-Palatine, the Archbishop-Electors of Cologne, Mayence and Treves and the Bishop of Münster formed a *Catholic League*, for the avowed purpose of enforcing the Treaty of Westphalia. A *Protestant League* was formed in Northern Germany with the same design. Intimidated by these coalitions, the Emperor Ferdinand III.

Catholic and Protestant Leagues.

caused the Treaty of Westphalia to be confirmed by the Imperial Diet at Ratisbon in 1654.

**Mazarin's Futile Opposition to the Election of Emperor Leopold I.**

Upon the death of Ferdinand III., in 1657, Cardinal Mazarin, with all the German princes who were in the interest of France, sought to prevent the election of another prince of the Austrian House of Hapsburg to the imperial throne of Germany. Mazarin would have gladly obtained the imperial crown for King Louis XIV.; but, as this was impossible, the French interest was exerted in behalf of the young Elector of Bavaria. The eldest son of Ferdinand III. had died before his father; and his second son, Leopold, had been educated only for the Church. But Leopold I. was elected Emperor of Germany about sixteen months after his father's death, in spite of the opposition of the French and their German allies, who, however, imposed the most rigorous conditions upon him concerning the war then in progress between France and Spain. Leopold I. solemnly pledged himself not to render any secret or open aid to the enemies of France, and not to interfere in Italy or in the Spanish Netherlands. The fulfillment of this treaty was insured by the consolidation of the Catholic and Protestant Leagues into the *Rhenish League*, under the protection of Louis XIV. The military forces of the Rhenish League were styled "The army of His Most Christian Majesty and of the Allied Electors and Princes."

**The Rhenish League.**

**Proposed Franco-Spanish Royal Intermarriage.**

In October, 1658, King Philip IV. of Spain commenced negotiations for peace with France by proposing that Louis XIV. should marry the Infanta Maria Theresa, the daughter of the Spanish king. Louis XIV. was deeply in love with the beautiful Maria Mancini, Cardinal Mazarin's niece; but Mazarin removed her from court and induced Louis XIV. to accept the Spanish king's offer.

**Peace of the Pryenees.**

Cardinal Mazarin proceeded to the Pyrenees and met the Spainsh Prime Minister, Don Luis de Haro, on the Isle of Pheasants, in the Bidassoa, a small stream which forms part of the boundary between France and Spain. Negotiations for peace and for the royal marriage were successfully consummated. Spain insisted positively that the Prince of Condé should receive a full and free pardon, be reconciled to the French court and be restored to all his honors and possessions. For a long time Mazarin refused this demand, but finally yielded when the Spanish Prime Minister threatened to form a principality for the Prince of Condé in Flanders. The Prince of Condé was pardoned for his treason and was restored to the government of Burgundy; and the Peace of the Pyrenees was signed November 7, 1659.

By the terms of the treaty the Spanish Infanta Maria Theresa was contracted in marriage to Louis XIV., and was promised a dowry of half a million crowns by her father, in consideration of her renunciation of all claims to the succession to the Spanish crown. All the children

of this marriage and their descendants were likewise solemnly excluded from the succession to the Spanish crown. Spain ceded to France the county of Artois and the towns of Gravelines, Landrecies, Thionville, Montmedy, Avesnes and a few others, as well as the counties of Roussillon and Cerdagne. Lorraine was nominally restored to its duke, but really remained annexed to the crown of France. As France had succeeded against the Austrian Hapsburgs in the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648, so she succeeded against the Spanish Hapsburgs in the Treaty of the Pyrenees in 1659, and secured for herself the proud position of being the leading power of Europe—a position which she held for a century and a half.

**Marriage of Louis XIV. with the Spanish Infanta Maria Theresa Negotiated.**

**France's Triumph.**

Louis XIV. repaired to St. Jean de Luz, in May, 1660; and, after a magnificent interview with King Philip IV. of Spain at the Isle of Pheasants, he married the Infanta Maria Theresa in the Church of St. Jean de Luz, June 9, 1660.

**Marriage Consummated.**

The two Treaties of Westphalia and the Pyrenees secured the supremacy of France in European diplomacy, and, in connection with the marriage of Louis XIV., placed Cardinal Mazarin at the height of his power. Like Richelieu, Mazarin did not long survive this realization of his hopes, but he died March 8, 1661, at the age of fifty-nine. Mazarin was one of the ablest and most unscrupulous of the statesmen who have swayed the destinies of France, and would have left a more honorable name to posterity had it not been for his inordinate and insatiable love of money. Like Richelieu, Mazarin patronized art, literature and education, and founded many colleges and academies in France.

**France's Supremacy in Europe.**

**Death of Mazarin.**

**His Character.**

## SECTION III.—LOUIS XIV. AND HIS WAR WITH SPAIN (A. D. 1661–1668).

**Louis XIV. Assumes the Government.**

The next day after Cardinal Mazarin's death, King Louis XIV., whose ambition was beginning to make him impatient of restraint, made this important announcement to his Council: "For the future I shall be my own Prime Minister." He was well qualified for the task which he assumed. Mazarin was in the habit of saying of the young king: "There is enough in him to make four kings and one honest man."

**His Abilities and His Ideas of Kingly Divine Right.**

Louis XIV. was a man of good judgment, of a firm, determined will, of great sagacity and penetration, of the most indomitable energy and perseverance. He possessed great powers of application, and throughout his reign he was occupied eight hours daily with the cares of state. He had imbibed the most exalted ideas of his "divine right" as a king, and considered himself the absolute master of the lives, liberties and

property of his subjects, which he became in reality. Thus believing that his royal authority was conferred upon him directly from Heaven, Louis XIV. regarded himself as the author and the source, as well as the dispenser, of all law and justice in his kingdom. He intended that his will should be the law of France, and considered himself responsible only to God for his conduct. The essence of his theory of government was expressed in his celebrated saying: "I am the state." He faithfully adhered to his principles throughout his reign, and succeeded in making France one of the most perfect examples of an absolute and irresponsible despotism in all history.

**His Long and Brilliant Reign.**

The reign of Louis XIV. lasted seventy-two years, A. D. 1643–1715; the first eighteen of which embraced the regency of his mother, Anne of Austria, when the government was administered by Cardinal Mazarin. After taking the government into his own hands and appointing no Prime Minister, Louis XIV. ruled in the most absolute and despotic manner for fifty-four years, A. D. 1661–1715; his Ministers being but passive instruments for the execution of his will. Louis XIV. was the greatest monarch of the seventeenth century and was the greatest of French kings. His reign was one of the most brilliant in French history; and his great generals—Condé, Turenne and Luxembourg—surpassed the generals of all other countries.

**His Absolute Personal Rule.**

**Dishonesty and Imprisonment of Fouquet.**

The disordered exchequer of France soon felt the master-hand of the able but despotic king. The brilliant but dishonest Finance Minister, Nicholas Fouquet, who had enormously enriched himself by his embezzlements and his falsification of the public accounts, was arrested, tried and convicted in September, 1661, and imprisoned for life in the Bastile. Louis XIV. then appointed the celebrated Jean Baptiste Colbert, a man of stainless integrity and of marked ability as a financier, in Fouquet's place.

**Colbert.**

**Colbert's Ability as Finance Minister.**

Colbert found the public finances in about as wretched a condition as the Duke of Sully had found them during the reign of Henry IV., and he at once set to work with energy and skill to reform them. In the course of a few years he placed the national finances on a secure and stable footing, and raised the gross income of the state to over one hundred million francs, of which over ninety millions reached the national treasury. He introduced a rigid economy into the administration of his departments, thus saving vast sums for the pleasure-loving and war-loving king to squander. Colbert was able to provide funds for the most costly wars and for the king's extravagance, without increasing the rate of taxation.

**Material Prosperity of France under Colbert.**

Besides being Minister of Finance, Colbert had charge of the departments of commerce, agriculture and public works. He wisely fostered every species of industry which could contribute to the wealth

of France, thus making the royal demands easily to be borne; and throughout this brilliant reign France was as much celebrated for her manufactures as for the feats of her arms.

**Louvois as War Minister.**

The Minister of War, Louvois, also possessed talents necessary for the direction of great exploits. The great engineer, Vauban, strengthened the fortresses on the French frontiers. Magnificent works—such as the Palace of Versailles, the Louvre, the Hotel des Invalides and the Canal of Languedoc—are standing monuments of the glory of this reign. French fashions, tastes, language, habits, and modes of thought began to be adopted by the cultured and higher circles of Europe. Louis XIV. was a great patron of literature and the arts; and the period of his reign—known as the *Augustan Age of French Literature*—was adorned by the genius of the dramatists Corneille, Moliere and Racine, the poet Boileau, the fabulist La Fontaine, and the divines Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Massillon, Bayle and Fenelon.

**Great Public Works.**

**French Social Influence.**

**Augustan Age of French Literature.**

**Louis XIV. Extorts an Humble Apology from Philip IV. of Spain.**

Louis XIV. soon gave a characteristic proof of his determination to assert and maintain his royal dignity. The Spanish ambassador at London having offended him by taking precedence of the French ambassador, Louis XIV. demanded satisfaction of King Philip IV. of Spain, threatening war in case of the Spanish king's refusal to make amends for the affront of his ambassador. Philip IV. was obliged to make a most humble apology and to send to the French court a special envoy, who promised, in the presence of the entire diplomatic body and in the name of his sovereign, never again to give a similar cause of complaint by infringing the claims of His Most Christian Majesty, the King of France.

**He Also Forces an Humble Apology from Pope Alexander VII.**

During the same year Louis XIV. inflicted a similar humiliation upon His Holiness, Pope Alexander VII. Some of the Pope's Corsican guard having insulted the French ambassador at Rome, the Pope was obliged to send messengers to France to beg the great king's pardon in the most humble terms; to disband his Corsican guard, and to erect an obelisk at Rome bearing an inscription relating the offense and the expiation therefor, as a memorial and a warning for the future.

**His Aggressive Designs against Spain.**

Louis XIV. began the active part of his reign with designs upon the integrity of the Spanish dominions, by annexing the Spanish-Netherlands and Franche-Comté to the crown of France; and every act of the early years of his reign was directed to the consummation of this result. He encouraged the Portuguese, who had achieved their independence of Spain; and he brought about the alliance of Portugal with England by the marriage of Charles II. of England with the Princess Catharine of Braganza, the daughter of King Alfonso VI. of Portugal. Louis XIV. secured the good will of Charles II. of England by purchasing Dunkirk from him by the payment of five million livres,

**His Alliance with England and the Dutch Republic.**

in November, 1662. Louis XIV. also contracted an offensive and defensive alliance with the Dutch Republic, thus preventing Holland from espousing the cause of Spain against him.

**His Alliance with the Dutch Republic in Her War with England.**

The operations of Louis XIV. were delayed by a war between his English and Dutch allies, which broke out in 1664. Holland appealed to the French king as her ally for aid against England. The King of France was reluctant to go to war with the King of England, and sought to mediate between the belligerent powers. When Louis XIV. found it impossible to accomplish anything in the way of mediation he sent six thousand French troops to assist the Dutch, and declared war against England in January, 1666, as noticed in the preceding chapter. The Bishop of Münster, England's subsidized German ally, ravaged Holland on the east, until the French king and the German allies of the Dutch Republic forced him to lay down his arms. The war was mainly fought at sea between the English and Dutch fleets, and was ended by the Peace of Breda, July 31, 1667, England restoring to France all the places in North America and the West Indies which she had wrested from her during the struggle.

**Peace of Breda.**

**Claim of Louis XIV. to Franche-Comte and the Spanish Netherlands.**

Before the close of the war just mentioned, Louis XIV. had astonished all Europe by a sudden march into the Spanish Netherlands. King Philip IV. of Spain had died in September, 1665, and had been succeeded on the Spanish throne by his only son, Charles II., the issue of a second marriage. Louis XIV. at once claimed the whole Spanish Netherlands and Franche-Comté, on the plea that his wife, Maria Theresa, who was the child of the first marriage of Philip IV. of Spain, had a superior claim to that of Charles II. of Spain, who was the issue of his father's second marriage.

**Spain's Resistance and Louis's Assertion.**

The Spanish court, under the regency of the widow of Philip IV., the mother of Charles II., refused to acknowledge the French king's claim, and reminded Louis XIV. of his wife's relinquishment of all her pretensions to the Spanish dominions at the time of her marriage. Louis XIV. replied that this relinquishment on his wife's part was conditional upon her dowry, and that, as this dowry had never been paid, her surrender of her claims was null and void.

**French Conquest of the Spanish Netherlands.**

The French king cut short the argument by marching his army under Marshal Turenne into the Spanish Netherlands, May 24, 1667. This French army overran the province of Flanders with very little opposition. Most of the towns submitted to the invaders upon the first demand, though Lille only surrendered August 28, 1667. Louis XIV. made a sudden pause in his career of conquest by concluding a truce of three months with the Spaniards, and returned to Paris.

The ambitious designs and the rapid success of the King of France excited alarm throughout all Europe; and England and Holland,

after ending their own war with each other, resolved to put an end to his territorial aggrandizement. Accordingly, a treaty known as the *Triple Alliance* was signed at The Hague between England, Holland and Sweden, January 23, 1668. These three Protestant powers agreed to mediate a peace between Roman Catholic France and Roman Catholic Spain, and to force a settlement between them by threatening war in case of their refusal. They engaged to induce Spain to cede all the places which the French had already conquered, on condition that Louis XIV. should promise to relinquish his claim upon the Spanish dominions in right of his wife.

**Triple Alliance of England, Holland and Sweden.**

Before Louis XIV. had been officially informed of the conclusion of the Triple Alliance he had sent an army of twenty thousand men under the Prince of Condé into Franche-Comté, and this French army overran that Spanish province in fifteen days. Well satisfied with this brilliant military exploit of the Prince of Condé, Louis XIV. consented to the Peace of Aix la Chapelle, which was signed May 2, 1668; Louis XIV. retaining all his conquests in the Spanish Netherlands, but restoring Franche-Comté after all its fortresses had been dismantled by the French troops; while the three powers which had concluded the Triple Alliance, along with the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany and the German princes, guaranteed the integrity of the remainder of the Spanish dominions.

**French Conquest of Franche-Comte.**

**Peace of Aix la Chapelle.**

## SECTION IV.—WAR OF LOUIS XIV. WITH HOLLAND AND HER ALLIES (A. D. 1672–1679).

Though the Triple Alliance ended one war, it led to another of far greater dimensions. The Dutch Republic was now at the height of her power and glory; being the protectress of the power which by her heroic struggle for independence she had contributed most to humble, while being also the successful rival of England in the dominion of the seas, as well as the deliverer of Denmark from the ambitious grasp of Sweden. Holland was thus able to interpose a formidable barrier to the ambitious career of Louis XIV. himself; but the "Grand Monarch" was resolved upon revenge upon the powerful little republic which had originated that Triple Alliance which had so suddenly cut short his conquest of the entire Spanish dominion in the Netherlands. As the champion of absolute royal power, Louis XIV. cherished a special hatred toward the Dutch Republic because she afforded a generous asylum to all exiles from civil or religious tyranny.

**Grievances of Louis XIV. against the Dutch Republic.**

Louis's Ministers, Louvois and Colbert, encouraged their king's design by telling him that he could never reduce the Spanish Netherlands

His Secret Treaty with Charles II. of England.

until he had humbled and subdued Holland. He accordingly proceeded to break up the Triple Alliance, and succeeded in buying off the unprincipled Charles II. of England, who agreed to desert his allies in consideration of an annual subsidy of three million francs, the possession of the island of Walcheren and two fortresses on the Scheldt in case of the conquest of Holland. The unscrupulous King of England also agreed to aid the King of France with a force of six thousand men and fifty ships of war, and to become a Roman Catholic and to do all in his power to restore that faith as the state religion of England; Louis XIV. promising to aid him with French troops and French money.

German Allies and Enemies of Louis XIV.

By bribery, Louis XIV. also secured the neutrality of Sweden and the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, and the active alliance of the Archbishop-Elector of Cologne and the Bishop of Münster. But Frederick William, the Great Elector of Brandenburg, was the faithful ally of Holland; while the Archbishop-Electors of Mayence and Treves, the Elector of Saxony and the Margrave of Baireuth entered into a league to oppose the ambitious designs of the French king and to defend the independence of the German Empire.

Alliance of Spain with the Dutch Republic.

Holland stood almost alone against the rest of Christendom; but in December, 1671, Spain, after being delivered from the corrupt and incompetent Jesuit Prime Minister, Nicthard, and anxious to check the alarming increase of the French power, concluded an alliance with the Dutch Republic, which had reduced her to such deplorable weakness, but which had so recently saved her from the ambitious grasp of the King of France. William, Prince of Orange, then twenty-one years of age, was created Captain-General of the forces of the Dutch Republic for the first campaign.

France and England at War with the Dutch Republic.

France and England declared war against Holland at very nearly the same time in the spring of 1672, and equally without honorable cause. In April of that year Louis XIV., with an army of two hundred thousand men, directed by the great genius of the Prince of Condé and Marshal Turenne, crossed the Lower Rhine at three points, and in the course of a few weeks overran the territories of the Dutch Republic, occupying the provinces of Guelders, Utrecht and Overyssel and part of the province of Holland. At the head of the main division, the French king was attended by Louvois, his Minister of War, and by Vauban, his famous military engineer. For the first time the bayonet, so terrible a weapon in French hands, and named from the city of Bayonne, where it was first made, was affixed to the end of the musket.

French Invasion of Holland.

Dutch Alarm.

The Dutch, who could at most raise an army of only thirty thousand men, were for the moment paralyzed with dismay at this gigantic invasion. So utterly helpless were they rendered by terror that it was

said that "every man seemed to have received sentence of death." In the forlorn hope of securing what yet remained of the Dutch Republic, the Grand Pensionary, or Prime Minister of Holland, offered the most abject terms of peace. But Louvois induced his king to reject these terms; and so haughty and insulting was the reply of Louis XIV. that it aroused a storm of indignation against the Grand Pensionary, John De Witt, and his brother, the Admiral Cornelius De Witt, that both were assassinated by a furious mob in the streets of the Dutch capital, thus bringing about a revolution which resulted in elevating the young Prince William of Orange to the head of the Dutch Republic with the offices of Stadtholder, Captain-General and Admiral for life with dictatorial powers.

**Assassination of the De Witts.**

**William of Orange.**

Prince William of Orange proceeded vigorously to arouse his countrymen to a more determined spirit of resistance. He proposed to the States-General that, rather than yield to the insolent demands of the French king, the entire Dutch nation—men, women and children—should abandon their country, embark on board their fleet, with such movable property as they could take with them, and sail to their possessions in the East Indies, where they should seek new homes; so that the Dutch Republic thenceforth would have existed in tropical regions on the other side of the globe.

**His Scheme of Migration to the East Indies.**

But, through the genius and determination of Prince William of Orange, the tide soon turned in favor of the Dutch, whose navy was able to hold its own in struggles with the united fleets of France and England. The advance of the French army in the Dutch territories was arrested by opening the dykes around Amsterdam by the orders of William of Orange, thus laying the country under water and enabling the Dutch fleet to approach the capital and to assist in its defense. Thus the Dutch gained valuable time to prepare for defense against the invaders.

**Amsterdam Saved by Opening the Dykes.**

The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany offered to aid the imperilled Republic on certain conditions, notwithstanding his promised neutrality; and Frederick William, the Great Elector of Brandenburg, also entered into an alliance with the Dutch. A German imperial army of forty thousand men under the Italian general Montecuculi marched to the Rhine; but the masterly movements of the French under Marshal Turenne prevented this imperial army from effecting a junction with the Dutch forces under the Prince of Orange. The Great Elector of Brandenburg lost patience and retreated to his own dominions, pursued by Marshal Turenne as far as the Elbe. The diversion afforded the Dutch some relief, though it did no more for them.

**Emperor Leopold I. and the Great Elector of Brandenburg Come to Holland's Rescue.**

The freezing of the canals early in 1673 enabled a French army of thirty thousand men under the Duke of Luxemburg to invade Holland,

French Operations in Holland and in Alsace.

but a sudden thaw forced this army to retreat without accomplishing anything. The French took Maestricht and Treves in 1673; and during the same year Louis XIV. in person occupied the ten imperial cities of Alsace, the prefecture of which had been granted to him by the Peace of Westphalia, and reduced them to absolute subjection, compelling them to renounce the privileges guaranteed to them by that treaty.

Allied Successes and French Evacuation of Holland.

A closer alliance between the Dutch Republic, the German Empire and Spain now threatened France with a general European war. The Prince of Orange captured Naarden after a siege of twelve days, and effected a junction with the German imperial army under Montecuculi, notwithstanding Marshal Turenne's effort to prevent it. The capture of Bonn by the allies, after a short siege, gave them command of the Rhine, and forced the French to evacuate Holland early in 1674, thus rescuing the Dutch Republic from the ambition of the "Grand Monarch," who, of all his conquests, retained only Grave and Maestricht.

Peace of Westminster between England and Holland.

For some time the English people and Parliament had been anxious to put an end to the degrading alliance which King Charles II. had entered into with Louis XIV., and they finally forced their king to make peace with the Dutch Republic. By the Peace of Westminster, in February, 1674, England and Holland restored the conquests which they had made from each other during the war. Sweden now remained as the only ally of the King of France.

French Conquest of Franche-Comte.

The seat of war was now entirely changed. In May, 1674, Louis XIV. invaded Franche-Comté, and reconquered that Spanish province by the 1st of July. This time he intended to hold on to his conquests in that region.

First French Desolation of the Palatinate.

With an inferior French force, Marshal Turenne drove the German imperial army from Alsace, and ravaged the Palatinate of the Rhine with fire and sword. At one time the Elector-Palatine beheld from his castle windows at Mannheim two cities and twenty-five villages on fire. He was so incensed at the sight that he challenged Marshal Turenne to fight a duel, but the marshal declined the challenge by his king's command. Later in the year 1674 the imperialists gained some advantages in Alsace, but Marshal Turenne again drove them across the Rhine and secured Alsace permanently for France. The English colonel, John Churchill—afterward so famous as the Duke of Marlborough—served under Marshal Turenne in this campaign.

French Conquest of Alsace.

Battle of Seneffe.

In Flanders the French under the Prince of Condé fought a severe but indecisive battle with the Prince of Orange at Seneffe, August 11, 1674; but the campaign in that quarter closed to the general advantage of the allies.

Death of Marshal Turenne.

Battle of Altenheim.

In 1675 Louis XIV. again crossed the Rhine with a powerful army under Marshal Turenne; but that great French general was killed by a cannon-ball at Salzbach, July 27, 1675, while reconnoitering for a battle which was never to take place. After a bloody battle at Altenheim, the French army was driven back across the Rhine. Turenne's remains were honored with a magnificent funeral, and were buried in the Abbey at St. Denis amid those of the Kings of France.

German Imperial Invasion of Alsace and Retreat.

Retirement of Conde and Montecuculi.

The Prince of Condé succeeded to Marshal Turenne's command, as the only man in France capable of executing the dead hero's plans with credit. The Prince of Condé found that the German imperial army under Montecuculi had crossed the Rhine at Strassburg and were besieging Haguenau. He compelled them to raise the siege and arrested their progress, but he followed Turenne's tactics by refusing to be drawn into a general engagement. The imperialists under Montecuculi finally evacuated Alsace and retired into winter-quarters at Spires. The Prince of Condé and Montecuculi, enfeebled by age and disease, resigned their respective commands, and both retired to private life.

Admiral Duquesne's Three Victories over the Dutch Fleet.

His King's Ingratitude.

In 1676 the war was chiefly fought at sea; and the French fleet under Admiral Duquesne defeated the Dutch fleet in the Mediterranean in three naval battles off the coast of Sicily, in the second of which the heroic Dutch Admiral De Ruyter was mortally wounded He had risen from the humble condition of a cabin boy to be one of the greatest admirals in Europe. The ungrateful and bigoted French king reproached the heroic Duquesne for being a Protestant. The blunt admiral replied: "When I fought for Your Majesty I never thought of what might be your religion." His son, being driven in exile for being a Huguenot, carried his father's bones with him, as he was resolved not to leave them in an ungrateful country.

The Duke of Luxemburg's Victories.

French Victories on the Rhine.

In 1677 the French army under the Duke of Luxemburg laid siege to Valenciennes, and the town was speedily taken through the skillful operations of the great engineer Vauban. The towns of Cambray and St. Omer were soon afterward taken also; and the Duke of Luxemburg defeated Prince William of Orange, who was marching to the relief of St. Omer, at Cassel, April 11, 1677. On the Rhine during the same year the French under Marshal de Créquy defeated the German imperial troops under the Duke of Lorraine at Kochersberg, near Strassburg, and took the city of Freiburg, November 16, 1677.

William of Orange and Louis XIV.

Prince William of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, was the consistent, lifelong opponent of Louis XIV.; and their relative positions in the European States-System were almost the same as those of Queen Elizabeth of England and King Philip II. of Spain a century before. The English Parliament was ardently in favor of the Prince of Orange; but King Charles II. had just sold himself afresh to

the King of France for a pension of two hundred thousand livres, and promised not to enter into any alliance without that king's consent.

**England's Alliance with the Dutch Republic.**

Nevertheless, the King of England was forced, by the voice of his Parliament and people, to declare war against France and to confirm his alliance with Holland by the marriage of his niece Mary, daughter of his brother James, Duke of York, with William of Orange. This marriage took place October 23, 1677, William having gone to England to secure the alliance of that country; and an offensive and defensive alliance was concluded between England and Holland in December of the same year, 1677.

England and Holland agreed to force Louis XIV. to accept terms of peace. While the negotiations which had been going on at Nimeguen, in Holland, since 1675 were still in progress the French king seized the cities of Ghent and Ypres, thus gaining the power to dictate his own terms. At the same time the Prince of Orange obtained conclusive evidence that King Charles II. of England was still in secret alliance with the King of France. Thereupon the Dutch envoys resolved to accept the terms of peace offered by Louis XIV. and to conclude a separate treaty with him regardless of their allies, although these allies had come to Holland's rescue in her distress.

**Peace of Nimeguen.**

Accordingly the Peace of Nimeguen was concluded between France and Holland, August 14, 1678; France retaining the Dutch settlements in Senegal, in Africa, and Guiana, in South America, which had been conquered by her arms during the war. Spain signed the treaty September 17, 1678; ceding to France the province of Franche-Comté and that part of Flanders afterward known as French Flanders, containing eleven towns, among which were the four fortresses of Valenciennes, Cambray, Ypres and St. Omer; so that Spain was the chief loser by the war. The Emperor Leopold I. signed the treaty February 5, 1679, thus restoring peace between France and the German Empire and finally ending this bloody war.

**Spain's Cessions to France.**

**Louis XIV. and Lorraine.**

Louis XIV. offered to restore Lorraine to its duke only on condition of granting to the French king four military roads, each half a league wide, from France into Germany; but the duke chose voluntary exile for life from his hereditary estates in preference to such humiliating terms.

**Power and Glory of Louis XIV.**

The Peace of Nimeguen was the culminating point of the power and glory of Louis XIV. The citizens of Paris solemnly conferred upon him the title of *the Great*, and erected the triumphal arches of the Porte St. Martin and the Porte St. Denis in his honor. He was the most powerful monarch in Europe; and he was very much elated by his triumphs, imagining that they were due to his merits. He considered himself the master of Europe as well as of France.

LOUIS XIV AND MOLIÈRE

From the Painting by J. L. Gérôme

Seizure of Strassburg by Louis XIV.

In September, 1681, Louis XIV. seized the imperial free city of Strassburg and annexed it to the French crown; and the engineering skill of Vauban soon made it an impregnable fortress. So important was this acquisition considered as a bulwark of France on her eastern frontier that a medal was struck to commemorate the completion of the work, bearing the inscription: "Clausa Germanis Gallia." Strassburg remained in the possession of France until 1870, when it was reconquered by Germany.

His Seizure of Twenty Other German Towns.

Encouraged by his success, Louis XIV. continued his aggressions upon Germany and also upon Spain. Twenty other towns were wrested from the neighboring German princes; and regular *Courts of Reunion* were instituted in France to ascertain what territories had previously been dependent upon the annexed dominions. The French king's aggressions excited the most intense indignation in Germany, which was increased by his intrigues to secure a promise of the imperial crown at the next election.

Coalition against Louis XIV.

Under the influence of Prince William of Orange, Holland, Sweden, Spain and the German Empire jointly protested against the siege of Luxemburg by the French army, and insisted upon a faithful execution of the Treaties of Westphalia and Nimeguen. This powerful coalition had the effect of inducing Louis XIV. to desist from his aggressions, and he found a pretext for his apparent moderation in the siege of Vienna by the Turks in 1683. He declared that he would not pursue his personal designs so long as Christendom was menaced by the forces of Islam, but he secretly encouraged the Sultan in his attacks on the territories of the Austrian House of Hapsburg.

His Instigation of the Turkish Siege of Vienna.

French Naval Bombardments of Algiers and Genoa.

The least insult offered to French ambassadors, or neglect of etiquette, was certain to bring down signal vengeance upon the party so offending. In 1682 and 1683 a French fleet bombarded Algiers—a more justifiable action—and forced the pirates to beg for mercy and to liberate their French and other Christian captives. In 1684 Genoa was also bombarded by the French navy for refusing to permit Louis XIV. to establish a depot within its territory.

Seizure of Towns in the Spanish Netherlands by Louis XIV.

Truce Treaty.

After the retreat of the Turks from Vienna in 1683, Louis XIV. marched his troops into the Spanish Netherlands and siezed Courtray and Dixmude. In the spring and summer of 1684 the French army took Oudenarde and Luxemburg, dismantled Treves and menaced Mons and Brussels. On August 15, 1684, France and Holland concluded a truce for twenty years, and the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany and King Charles II. of Spain acceded to this truce in the course of a few weeks. By this truce Louis XIV. was permitted to retain the free city of Strassburg, the province of Luxemburg and all the towns which he had seized before August, 1681, but was forbidden

to advance any additional claim upon the territories of the German Empire.

Temporary Truce.

This was merely a temporary settlement, as the powers which the French king had despoiled of their territories were thoroughly resolved to make another effort to crush him. Though he was at the zenith of his power and greatness, he had incurred the enmity of all Europe, and had laid the foundation for the numberless troubles and mortifications which clouded his later years.

## SECTION V.—LOUIS XIV. AND PERSECUTION OF THE HUGUENOTS (A. D. 1683–1685).

Louis XIV. and His Mistresses.

During the earlier years of his reign Louis XIV. had abandoned himself to the unrestrained indulgence of his licentious passions. He openly insulted his queen by retaining mistress after mistress at his court, and bestowing upon these dissolute women his affections for the time. His first mistress was the beautiful and unfortunate Louise de la Vallière, who bore him two children, after which she retired to a convent, heart-broken and penitent, in 1674. The king's next mistress was the Marchioness de Montespan, who held her place in the king's affections for many years, bearing him eight children, all of whom he legitimated.

Madame de Maintenon.

Madame de Montespan selected Françoise D'Aubigné, the widow of the comic poet Scarron, as governess for her children. Françoise D'Aubigné was handsome and highly accomplished, attractive in manner and endowed with great tact. Louis XIV. frequently saw her while she was in charge of his children, and she acquired over him an influence which she retained during the rest of his life. She afterward became Madame de Maintenon, and acted a conspicuous part in the latter part of this king's reign, as we shall presently see. She had many good qualities, but was a relentless bigot in religious matters, and this quality made her the evil genius of France.

Her Influence over Louis XIV.

Madame de Maintenon professed to be shocked by the king's evil ways, and proceeded to reform him. Louis XIV. was as superstitious as he was licentious, and as cruel as he was superstitious. Madame de Maintenon made use of these traits in the king's character to persuade him that the best atonement he could make for his evil life was to destroy heresy in his kingdom.

The Huguenots and Their Industry.

At this time France contained about a million Huguenots, who had become wealthy and prosperous under the wise protection of the Edict of Nantes. They were sober, earnest and faithful, and had almost monopolized the productive industry of France. Their silks, paper,

velvet and other manufactured articles were the boast of the kingdom; and their efforts seemed about to make France the leading manufacturing country of the world. They were skilled farmers and vine-dressers, and wherever the land showed signs of the most skillful culture the owner was certain to be a Huguenot.

**Their Commercial Enterprise.**

The Huguenots were as celebrated for their integrity as for their industry. A Huguenot's word was as good as his bond, and to be "honest as a Huguenot" became a proverb. This characteristic of integrity—an essential in a merchant who deals with foreigners whom he never sees—was so conspicuous in the business transactions of the Huguenots that they got the foreign trade of France almost exclusively into their hands. The English and the Dutch were always more willing to begin a correspondence with the Huguenot than with the Roman Catholic merchants. Thus the foreign business of France came almost wholly into the hands of Huguenot merchants at Bordeaux, at Rouen, at Caen, at Metz, at Nismes and at the other great centers of commerce in France. Colbert had fostered the industries of the Huguenots, and had encouraged them to prosecute those industries in every possible quarter.

**Jesuit Instigation of Religious Persecution.**

The Jesuits and the Roman Catholic Church had always regarded the tolerance shown to the Huguenots with great disfavor, and the Jesuits had succeeded to some extent in renewing the persecutions of the sixteenth century. The Huguenots had been treated with great rigor for twenty years, and the king had been induced to look upon them with open hostility, in spite of their great usefulness to the state. The Jesuits now made use of the king's infatuation for Madame de Maintenon, and obtained her aid by offering to favor the scheme upon which her heart had been set.

**Louis XIV. Instigated to Persecution by Madame de Maintenon.**

Maria Theresa, the Spanish wife of Louis XIV., died in 1683; and Madame de Maintenon resolved to marry the king. She carefully got him under her influence, and accordingly proceeded to persuade him that by extirpating heresy in his kingdom he could render adequate satisfaction to Heaven for his past sins. The ill health of her royal paramour materially aided her, and the king during his fits of illness was anxious to quiet the remorse of conscience from which he suffered because of the past sins of his dissolute life. Penance must be performed, but not by himself. Says Sismondi: "Those who boasted of having converted him had never represented to him more than two duties—that of renouncing his incontinence, and that of extirpating heresy in his dominions."

The king's confessor, the Jesuit Père la Chaise, well seconded Madame de Maintenon's efforts with the king. Under their influence, Louis XIV. inflicted upon his Huguenot subjects all the horrors that

Dreadful Persecution of the Huguenots.

bigotry could devise or that a fiendish cruelty could execute. In the year of Colbert's death, 1683, the military executions commenced. Life was rendered intolerable to the Huguenots. Every avocation was closed against them, and they were given the alternative of abjuring their religion or starving. Their churches were closed or destroyed. Their pastors were forbidden to preach. Entire congregations of Huguenots were massacred by the royal dragoons. Cruelty had full sway from Grenoble to Bordeaux. In the Viverais and the Cevennes the unfortunate Protestants were put to the sword, multitudes of them being brutally massacred.

The Dragonnades.

It was generally understood that a Huguenot was outside the protection of the laws, and that any one was at perfect liberty to maltreat him at pleasure. Children were torn from their parents that they might be educated in the Roman Catholic faith. The fiercest and most brutal of the royal soldiery were let loose upon the defenseless Huguenot communities. The horrors of the *Dragonnades*, as these persecutions were called, are indescribable. Those who refused to abjure Protestantism were put to death or imprisoned. Many yielded and were "converted." In September, 1685, Louvois, the Minister of War, wrote to King Louis XIV.: "Sixty thousand conversions have been made in the district of Bordeaux, and twenty thousand in that of Montauban. So rapid is the progress that before the end of the month ten thousand Protestants will not be left in the district of Bordeaux, where there were one hundred and fifty thousand on the fifteenth of last month."

Smiles's Statement.

Says Smiles: "The farce of Louis's conversion went on. In August, 1684, Madame de Maintenon wrote thus, 'The king is prepared to do everything that shall be judged useful for the welfare of religion. This undertaking will cover him with glory before God and man.' The Dragonnades were then in full career throughout the southern provinces, and a long wail of anguish was rising from the persecuted all over France. In 1685 the king's sufferings increased, and his conversion became imminent. His miserable body was beginning to decay, but he was willing to make a sacrifice to God of what the devil had left of it."

Marriage of Louis XIV. with Madame de Maintenon

The Jesuits now made an agreement with Madame de Maintenon to advise King Louis XIV. to marry her on condition that she should induce him to revoke the Edict of Nantes. The infamous bargain was carried out. Père la Chaise counseled a secret marriage, and the ceremony was performed at Versailles by the Archbishop of Paris in the presence of the confessor and two other witnesses. As the marriage was never acknowledged, Madame de Maintenon's position at court remained anomalous and equivocal; but she exercised a supreme influence

over her royal husband, and immediately after her marriage she induced him to revoke the Edict of Nantes.

Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.

The Revocation of the Edict of Nantes occurred October 17, 1685, thus depriving the Huguenots of all the privileges which Henry IV. and Louis XIII. had granted them. The exercise of the Protestant religion was absolutely prohibited throughout France, except in Alsace. The Huguenot churches were ordered to be destroyed, and their pastors were commanded to leave the kingdom within fifteen days. The Huguenots themselves were forbidden to leave France on penalty of confiscation of their property and penal servitude in the galleys. They were required to embrace the Roman Catholic religion and to have their children educated in that faith.

Sufferings and Massacres of Huguenots.

The Roman Catholic world greeted the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes with rejoicings, but the cruel measure inflicted a death-blow upon the prosperity of France. The fierce French soldiery and thousands of foreign mercenaries were let loose upon the Huguenots throughout France, and the most shocking atrocities were perpetrated. These brutal dragoons invaded every Huguenot dwelling, from the herdsman's hut to the noble's castle, and their occupants were subjected to the greatest outrages. Men and women were murdered at their own firesides. Little children were torn from the arms of their parents and butchered in their presence. Wives and maidens were outraged amid the ruins of their own homes.

Huguenots Denied Religious Ministration and Sepulture.

The Huguenots were forbidden to bury their dead or to comfort their dying. The bodies of those who died without the last offices of the Roman Catholic Church were removed from their dwellings by the public hangman, and cast into the common sewer. Those who refused the viaticum when sick were punished, in case of recovery, with the galleys or imprisonment for life and the confiscation of all their property.

Wholesale Exodus of Huguenots.

So severe was the persecution that hundreds and thousands of Huguenots fled from France, in spite of the cruel laws against emigration. Thousands who attempted to escape were shot down by the soldiers, and thousands of others were captured and sent to the galleys. The purest and gentlest men were sent there and chained beside the vilest criminals. Each galley had a Jesuit chaplain, who constantly offered pardon to each captive Huguenot if he would renounce the Protestant religion for the Roman Catholic faith. Notwithstanding the sufferings of the captives, most of them remained true to their religious convictions.

Distinguished Exiles.

Altogether about two hundred thousand Huguenots fled from their native land, and many thousands were massacred in the Dragonnades. Among the exiles were some of the noblest names of France. Marshal

Schomberg, one of the talented commanders of Louis XIV., escaped into Holland and entered the service of Prince William of Orange. Among the exiles were many distinguished literary men; such as Basnage, Bayle, Jurieu, Lenfant, Beausobre, Saurin, Rapin and others. Most of the refuges belonged to the industrial, commercial and manufacturing classes.

**Ruin of French Industry.**

This Huguenot exodus well-nigh destroyed the industry of France. Lyons, Tours and Nantes were ruined. Lyons did not recover its former prosperity for a century. Nantes has not yet recovered from the losses which the bigotry of Louis XIV. thus inflicted upon it. This bigotry was a severer blow to the prosperity of his kingdom than all the costly wars which his ambition had kindled.

**Huguenot Industry in Other Lands.**

The industry which France had thus lost was transplanted to Protestant countries; and thus England, Holland, Germany, Switzerland, and even the English colonies in North America, were enriched by the skill and labor of these Huguenot exiles. They established new branches of manufacture in those countries, and these have grown steadily until the present time. Thus those countries gained what France had lost, and that which is the most valuable source of wealth that any country can possess—an enlightened, industrious and skillful class of citizens.

**Liberality of the Great Elector of Brandenburg.**

Frederick William, the Great Elector of Brandenburg, distinguished himself by his liberality to the twenty thousand Huguenot refugees who settled in his dominions. He provided them with land, with building materials and with capital for their manufactures; and their industry and diligence soon transformed the waste lands about Berlin into a well-cultivated garden.

## SECTION VI.—WAR OF LOUIS XIV. WITH THE GRAND ALLIANCE (A. D. 1686–1697).

**Louis XIV. and William of Orange.**

The cruelties inflicted upon the Huguenots by their bigoted king aroused the most inveterate hatred of Louis XIV. in all Protestant Europe; and his great opponent, Prince William of Orange, soon perceived the blunder which the "Grand Monarque" had committed, and took full advantage of it. The position of William, who was universally considered the champion of the Protestant cause, as well as the implacable foe of Louis XIV., was vastly improved.

**League of Augsburg.**

Through William's exertions the powerful *League of Augsburg* was formed in July, 1686, uniting the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, King Charles II. of Spain, King Charles XI. of Sweden and the leading German princes, such as the Elector-Palatine and the Electors

of Bavaria and Saxony, against the King of France. Holland did not immediately join the league, as William's interests did not demand that the illustrious Stadtholder should break with Louis XIV. just then. He was secretly preparing to drive his father-in-law, King James II., from the throne of England. He skillfully concealed his designs from the King of France until it was too late for that monarch to oppose them.

**Designs of William of Orange.**

The affairs of Cologne and the Palatinate soon furnished a pretext for hostilities. By means of French gold a partisan of Louis XIV. was elected Archbishop-Elector of Cologne, while Pope Innocent XI. and the League of Augsburg supported a Bavarian prince as a candidate for the office. The Duke of Orleans, the French king's brother, had married the sister of the last Elector-Palatine belonging to the House of Simmern. At her marriage this new Duchess of Orleans renounced all feudal rights in the Palatinate, but retained her hereditary claim to the movable property or allodial possessions of her family.

**The Cologne and Palatinate Successions.**

Louis XIV. now claimed all the artillery of the fortresses of the Palatinate as "movables," and his lawyers interpreted the allodial tenure so as to make it include almost the whole of the Palatinate. The new Elector-Palatine, Philip William of Neuburg, appealed to the Emperor Leopold I.; and the alarm which the arrogant assumptions of the King of France excited gave a new importance to the League of Augsburg.

**Claims of Louis XIV. to the Palatinate Artillery.**

The War of the League of Augsburg commenced in September, 1688, when Louis XIV. hurled his forces against Germany. A French army of eighty thousand men under the command of the Dauphin and Marshals Duras and Vauban invaded the Palatinate of the Rhine, took Philipsburg after a month's siege, and captured Mannheim shortly afterward. A French division under the Marquis de Boufflers occupied the whole of the Palatinate of the Rhine west of that river; and another French detachment under Marshal d'Humières seized Dinant, in the bishopric of Liege.

**French Invasion of the Palatinate.**

Prince William of Orange took advantage of the French movement against Germany by prosecuting his design against King James II. of England, who had become thoroughly estranged from his subjects by his arbitrary and illegal efforts to make Roman Catholicism the state religion of England. The English nobility, gentry, clergy and people turned their eyes toward the Prince of Orange, who, as we have seen, was invited to come to England to defend liberty and Protestantism, and with whom many of the most prominent men in England had been negotiating for some time.

**William of Orange and James II. of England.**

Louis XIV., in great anger, warned the Prince of Orange that any attempt which he made against James II. would involve him in a war

William of Orange Made King of England by the Revolution of 1688.

with France; but the League of Augsburg kept the French king so closely occupied that he was unable to interfere with William's movements against the King of England; and the Prince of Orange embarked unmolested in the expedition with which he landed in England, thus giving the signal for the Glorious Revolution of 1688, which hurled the usurping tyrant James II. from the English throne, and which made William and his wife Mary joint sovereigns of England. The deposed James II. and his queen and infant son found refuge in France, where they were generously received and maintained by Louis XIV.

William Congratulated by Catholic Sovereigns.

So altered were the relations of European powers that such Catholic sovereigns as Pope Innocent XI., the Emperor Leopold I. and King Charles II. of Spain united in congratulating the Protestant Prince William of Orange on his accession to the thrones of England, Scotland and Ireland; and this event, by turning England, the former ally of Louis XIV., into an enemy, imposed a serious check upon the French king's extravagant ambition, which all Europe alike dreaded and prepared to curb.

Second French Desolation of the Palatinate.

As Louis XIV. was unable to occupy the whole of the Palatinate of the Rhine, he hearkened to the advise of his brutal Minister of War, Louvois, and commanded his generals to ravage that beautiful district with fire and sword; and the Rhenish Palatinate accordingly suffered a desolation far more terrible than in the preceding war. More than forty cities and hundreds of flourishing villages were reduced to ashes, because the French could not garrison these towns. The important cities of Mannheim, Heidelberg, Spires, Worms, Frankenthal, Oppenheim and Bingen were thus burned; and the beautiful country became a blackened desert, as the farms, orchards and vineyards were likewise laid utterly waste.

Dreadful Sufferings in Consequence.

Such of the unfortunate inhabitants as were able to emigrate took refuge in other countries; but over a hundred thousand peasantry wandered helpless amid the ruins of their dwellings, imploring the curse of Heaven upon the merciless French king who had been the cause of their sufferings. Their cruelties aroused the most intense hatred of the French in the hearts of the German people—a hatred which has not yet died out.

Grand Alliance against Louis XIV.

The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany now declared war against Louis XIV., denouncing him as the enemy of Christendom; and such was the effect of the cruelties of the French that a *Grand Alliance* was formed against the King of France, consisting of England and Holland under William of Orange, Charles II. of Spain, Duke Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany and the German princes who had formed the League of Augsburg. England,

under the vigorous government of King William III., was the head of the Grand Alliance.

French Generals.

Allied Generals.

The generals on the side of France in this war were the Duke of Luxemburg, Marshal Catinat and the great engineer Vauban. The leading commanders of the forces of the allies were William III. of England and Holland, Prince Eugene of Savoy, the Earl of Marlborough and the Dutch engineer Cohorn. The Duke of Lorraine, the best general of the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, died in 1690, and was succeeded in the command of the imperial armies by the Elector Maximilian Emanuel of Bavaria.

Allied Armies in the Spanish Netherlands, the Palatinate and Italy.

After the formation of the Grand Alliance the allies placed three armies in the field to oppose the French. The first of these armies, under the Prince of Waldeck, entered the Spanish Netherlands, and defeated the French under Marshal D'Humières at Walcourt and drove them back from the line of the Sambre. The second allied army, under the Duke of Lorraine, and the third, under the new Elector Frederick III. of Brandenburg, at once marched to the Rhine and took Mayence and Bonn; after which they retired into winter-quarters in the Palatinate, which still was able to furnish them subsistence in spite of the barbarous ravages to which it had been subjected by the French. In Italy the French under Marshal Catinat defeated the Duke of Savoy at Staffarda, August 18, 1690—a severe blow to Louis XIV. in that quarter.

French Army in Ireland.

In order to weaken England by aiding James II. in his efforts to recover his lost throne, Louis XIV. sent James to Ireland with a French force in March, 1689; and in the summer of 1690 a French fleet of seventy-eight ships-of-the-line under Admiral Tourville attempted to make a descent upon England in the interest of James II., and defeated the English and Dutch fleet under Admiral Herbert, Earl of Torrington, off Beachy Head, on the southern coast of England, June 30, 1690. The Dutch sustained the brunt of this engagement with great bravery, but the English admiral is said to have held aloof because he was disloyal to King William III. and secretly in the interest of James II.

French Naval Victory off Beachy Head.

Battle of the Boyne and French Evacuation of Ireland.

The allied fleet was obliged to retire and to seek the shelter of the Thames, and for some time there were fears in England of a French invasion; but these fears were dispelled by King William's victory over the fallen James II. in the decisive battle of the Boyne, in Ireland, July 1, 1690, the day after the naval battle off Beachy Head. James II. returned to France; and when Ireland was reduced to submission in 1691 the French forces evacuated the island, many of the Irish going with them and afterward doing good service to King Louis XIV.

Marshal Luxembourg.

Early in 1690 Louis XIV. appointed the Duke of Luxemburg to the command of the French army in the Spanish Netherlands, and this commander became famous as Marshal Luxembourg. He forced a

Battle of Fleurus.

passage of the Sambre in spite of the resistance of the Prince of Waldeck, and defeated that general in the great battle of Fleurus, June 30, 1690, the very day of the French naval victory over the Anglo-Dutch fleet off Beachy Head.

Capture of Mons by Louis XIV.

In the spring of 1691 the French army under Louis XIV. in person captured Mons, one of the strongest fortresses in the Spanish Netherlands, after a siege of nine days. In the summer of the same year

Death of Louvois.

Louvois, the able but brutal French Minister of War, died; but none regretted his death, except King Louis XIV., who found himself at great loss to find one to fill his place.

Attempted French Invasion of England.

In May, 1692, a French army of thirty thousand men, largely composed of British exiles, was assembled at various points on the coast of Normandy—at Havre, Cherbourg and Cape Le Hogue—to invade England and replace James II. on the throne of that kingdom. This force was commanded by James himself and Marshal Bellefonds, and was to be conveyed to the English coast by a French fleet of forty-four ships-of-the-line under Admiral Tourville.

French Naval Defeat off the Isle of Wight.

No sooner was Admiral Tourville ready to embark the troops designed to make a descent on the English coast than he was ordered by his king to attack the English and Dutch fleet of ninety-nine ships-of-the-line under Admiral Russell, which had entered the English Channel. Though Admiral Tourville did not expect victory against such odds, he obeyed his king's order without the slightest hesitation, and thus attacked the Anglo-Dutch fleet off the Isle of Wight, May 19, 1692, but was defeated and forced to retire at night.

French Naval Defeat off Cape La Hogue.

Most of Tourville's shattered fleet sought shelter in the roadstead of Cape La Hogue, where they were stranded with their broadsides to the victorious foe. There they were attacked by the pursuing English ships of Admiral Russell's victorious fleet and totally destroyed, May 23, 1692. James II. viewed the engagement from the nighboring cliffs, and could not refrain from expressing his admiration of the valor of the English sailors, though the result of the battle put an end to his hopes of recovering his lost crown. Louis XIV. was so disheartened by the loss of his fleet that he abandoned the cause of James II., who passed the remainder of his life in pious seclusion at the palace of St. Germains, near Paris.

Siege and Capture of Namur by Louis XIV.

While his navy was thus destroyed, the King of France was more fortunate on land. On May 25, 1692, he in person laid siege to Namur, the strongest fortress in the Spanish Netherlands. Vauban's engineering skill was irresistible, and the fortress surrendered June 5,

1692. William III. of England and Holland in the meantime had marched to the relief of the beleaguered fortress, at the head of an allied army of seventy thousand men, but was prevented from crossing the Sambre by the French army under Marshal Luxembourg. William attacked Marshal Luxembourg at Steinkirk, in the province of Hainault, July 24, 1692, but was repulsed with heavy loss after an obstinate battle, and forced to retreat to Brussels.

Battle of Steinkirk.

King William III. began the campaign of 1693 by endeavoring to draw the French army under King Louis XIV. in person into an engagement near Louvain; but the French king declined to meet his great adversary in the open field, and abruptly left his army and sent a portion of it into Germany—an act which so weakened his military prestige that he did not afterward appear in person at the head of an army.

Military Retirement of Louis XIV.

King William III. was defeated by the French army under Marshal Luxembourg in the bloody battle of Neerwinden, July 29, 1693, thus leaving the French in the ascendency in the Spanish Netherlands; but William conducted his retreat with such skill that his antagonists said that he was more formidable in defeat than others in victory.

Battle of Neerwinden.

On October 4, 1693, the French army in Piedmont under Marshal Catinat defeated the Duke of Savoy in the battle of Marsaglia; and the French army in Spain under the Duke of Noailles captured Rosas, in the province of Catalonia.

French Victories in Italy and Spain.

The French fleet under Admiral Tourville attacked and defeated an English fleet under Admiral Sir George Rooke in Lagos Bay, on the southern coast of Portugal, June 27, 1693, thus capturing four English men-of-war and forty of the richly-laden English and Dutch merchantmen which the English fleet was convoying toward Smyrna. English commerce suffered greatly from the depredations of French privateers. In South America the French squadron under Commodore de Pointis surprised the rich city of Carthagena, inflicting a loss of thirty millions upon the Spaniards; while another French squadron under Duguay-Trouin captured a Dutch fleet on its way from Bilbao.

French Naval Victory in Lagos Bay.

Other French Naval Victories.

France had now been engaged for seven years in a constant and ruinous war with the Grand Alliance; and Louis XIV. was anxious for peace, being conscious of the fact that his resources were completely exhausted. "The people were perishing to the sound of *Te Deums*." In the language of Fenelon, Louis XIV. "had made France a vast hospital." The French finances had greatly fallen into disorder since Colbert's death, in 1683. The French peasantry had been largely drafted into the armies, and the lands were left uncultivated. Taxes upon industry had eaten up the very sources of revenue, while the kingdom was burdened with an enormous debt.

France's Exhaustion.

Louis XIV. and the Spanish Succession.

Louis XIV. had a still stronger motive for peace in his views concerning the Spanish succession, as the childless Charles II. of Spain was evidently near the end of his life. For a long time Louis XIV. had an understanding with the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, who, like himself, was a first cousin and a brother-in-law of the Spanish king. As the French king could not realize his hope respecting a partition of the Spanish dominions if the death of Charles II. should occur while all Europe was in arms against France, Louis XIV. sought the mediation of Pope Innocent XII. and of Kings Christian V. of Denmark and Charles XI. of Sweden; offering ample concessions for the sake of peace. William III. of England and Holland and the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany were well aware of the exhaustion of their great antagonist, and opposed and neutralized all his efforts, so that the war went on four years longer. French armies renewed their devastations in the Rhineland, while French privateers continued preying upon English and Dutch commerce.

Failure of His Efforts for Peace.

Recapture of Namur by William III. of England.

Marshal Luxembourg, the ablest of the French commanders in this war, died at Versailles, January 4, 1695, at the age of sixty-seven. He was succeeded by Marshal Villeroi, who began his military career by allowing King William III. to recapture the strong fortress of Namur, thus giving the allies the ascendency in the Spanish Netherlands and producing a marked improvement in their fortunes. As this was the first conquest wrested from Louis XIV., the allies felt greatly encouraged.

The Duke of Savoy Detached from the Grand Alliance.

Louis XIV. still became more anxious for peace, and proceeded to break up the Grand Alliance. By restoring Pignerol, in Piedmont, and Nice and the other possessions which the French had wrested from the House of Savoy, the French king succeeded in inducing Victor Amadeus II., Duke of Savoy, to desert the Grand Alliance and to sign a treaty of peace and alliance with France, May 30, 1696, thus weakening the allies to that extent.

Peace of Ryswick.

Sweden offered her mediation for a peace. The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany was most averse to a treaty with the King of France, but when England and Holland intimated that they would conclude a separate treaty with Louis XIV. the Emperor finally consented to negotiate. The plenipotentiaries of all the belligerent powers met at the little village of Ryswick, in Holland, in May, 1697. After four months of negotiation, the Peace of Ryswick was concluded between France, England, Holland and Spain, September 30, 1697. Louis XIV. bound himself to acknowledge William III. as the rightful King of England, Scotland and Ireland, and to render no further assistance to the exiled James II. Louis XIV. also restored to Spain the French conquests in the Spanish province of Catalonia, and also some of

Its Concessions to England and Spain.

the French acquisitions in the Spanish Netherlands, such as the duchy of Luxemburg and the towns of Charleroi, Mons, Ath and Cambray.

Its Concessions to Germany.

The next month, October, 1697, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany acceded to the Peace of Ryswick by reluctantly signing a treaty with France, by which he recovered all the imperial territory which Louis XIV. had wrested from him since the Peace of Nimeguen, in 1678, except the city of Strassburg, which France still retained. Duke Leopold of Lorraine was restored to his parental inheritance; and the Duchess of Orleans renounced all her claim to the Palatinate upon the payment of a sum of money from the new Elector-Palatine; while Joseph Clement of Bavaria was confirmed in the dignity of Archbishop-Elector of Cologne.

Humiliation of Louis XIV.

England's Elevation.

The terms of the Peace of Ryswick were humiliating to Louis XIV.; but the exhausted condition of his kingdom, and his anxiety to have his hands free upon the approaching vacancy of the Spanish throne, allowed him no other alternative than to accept them. This treaty released England forever from French influence and made her the chief counterpoise to France in the European States-System. The last war of Louis XIV. was that of the Spanish Succession, in the early part of the eighteenth century, which involved the great powers of Central and Western Europe, and which will be described in the next section.

## SECTION VII.—WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION (A. D. 1701–1714).

Charles II. of Spain and the Spanish Succession.

For the next three years after the peace of Ryswick, in 1697, all Europe watched the declining health of the childless King Charles II. of Spain, the last of the dynasty of the Spanish Hapsburgs. His kingdom appeared almost as near dissolution as himself, suffering from a bankrupt treasury and the general neglect of public discipline; while famine, earthquakes, hurricanes and inundations were adding to the misery of the wretched country, which but a century before had been the leading power of Europe.

Three Claimants for the Spanish Throne.

In case of the death of Charles II. the throne would have been claimed by three princes, all of whom derived their claims from the daughters of Charles's father, King Philip IV. The elder daughter, Maria Theresa, as we have seen, was the first wife of Louis XIV. The younger daughter, Margarita, had married the Emperor Leopold I. According to the law of hereditary succession, the eldest daughter was clearly entitled to the Spanish dominions; but the Spaniards pleaded her renunciation of all her claims upon her marriage with the French king as debarring her issue from the inheritance of the Spanish

dominions. Louis XIV., however, asserted that this relinquishment had been rendered null and void because the dowry on which it depended had never been paid, and that therefore the claims of his first wife's children were valid.

**Archduke Charles of Austria and the Electoral Prince of Bavaria.**

The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany claimed the Spanish throne for his second son, the Archduke Charles of Austria, as the child of his wife, the younger daughter of Philip IV. of Spain. The third claimant to the Spanish inheritance was the little Electoral prince of Bavaria, whose mother was the daughter of the Emperor Leopold I. and his wife, the Empress Margarita. King Charles II. of Spain and his subjects considered the little Bavarian prince the rightful heir.

**First Partition Treaty of Louis XIV. and William III.**

Louis XIV. did not expect to secure the success of his claim without difficulty, but he hoped to obtain at least a part of the Spanish dominions by continuing his intrigues, and for this purpose he negotiated a treaty with William III. of England and Holland in October, 1698, for the partition of the Spanish dominions, upon the death of Charles II. of Spain; by which Spain and her possessions in America and the Netherlands were to be assigned to the Electoral prince of Bavaria; while France was to have the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily, certain specified sea-ports in Tuscany and the province of Guipuzcoa; and the Duchy of Milan was to be given to the Archduke Charles of Austria, the Emperor Leopold's son.

**Bavarian Electoral Prince as Spanish Heir and His Suspicious Death.**

Notwithstanding the precautions of the contracting parties, Charles II. of Spain received information of this insolent attempt for the partition of his dominions without consulting him; and, incensed at this action, he at once, by a solemn act of succession, declared the youthful Electoral prince of Bavaria the sole heir to the Spanish dominions; but that little prince soon afterward died suddenly at Brussels, February 6, 1699, not without suspicion of having been poisoned at the secret instigation of the Austrian Hapsburgs.

**Second Partition Treaty of Louis XIV. and William III.**

In 1700 Kings Louis XIV. and William III. signed a new partition treaty, assigning Lorraine and all the Spanish possessions in Italy except Milan to the Dauphin, while Spain itself was allotted to the Archduke Charles of Austria on condition that it should never be united with the German Empire. The Duke of Lorraine was to have Milan in exchange for his hereditary duchy. If the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany rejected this arrangement Spain was to be bestowed on a third party.

**Will of Charles II. of Spain in Favor of Philip of Anjou.**

Greatly irritated at the King of France, King Charles II. of Spain made a will acknowledging the Archduke Charles of Austria as his heir and successor to all the Spanish dominions; but the Spanish nobles, corrupted by the gold of Louis XIV., induced King Charles II. to make a new will, by which Duke Philip of Anjou, grandson of the

King of France, was appointed successor to the whole Spanish inheritance. Charles II. died November 1, 1700; and, after some hesitation, Louis XIV. adopted the last will. When the Duke of Anjou started for Madrid to take possession of the throne of Spain, with the title of Philip V., the French monarch said to him: "There are no more Pyrenees."

**Philip of Anjou in Madrid.**

In December, 1700, Philip of Anjou was welcomed at the Spanish capital with acclamations, and most of the European powers hastened to acknowledge his title to the crown of Spain. The interference of the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany was delayed by symptoms of a Hungarian rebellion and by disturbances in the North of Germany caused by the creation of the ninth Electorate—that of Hanover under the Guelfs, the House of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel.

**Electorate of Hanover.**

**Peaceful Attitude of the European Powers.**

All seemed for the time to favor the French king's interests, and by a conciliatory policy he perhaps might have secured the advantages which he had gained. The other European powers were greatly averse to a general European war, and did not appear disposed to support the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany in his efforts to place his son, the Archduke Charles of Austria, upon the Spanish throne. In England the Tories, who were opposed to war, came into power in place of the Whigs, who were ready to go to war with the French king to drive Philip of Anjou from the throne of Spain.

**Prince Eugene's Advice to Emperor Leopold I.**

The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany opposed the last will of Charles II. of Spain, and listened to the advice of his great general, Prince Eugene of Savoy, who represented to him that the German Empire could never be secure while the French held entrances to it through Northern Italy on the south and the Spanish Netherlands on the west.

**Treaty of the Crown between Leopold I. and the Elector of Brandenburg.**

By the *Treaty of the Crown*, concluded at Vienna with the Elector Frederick III. of Brandenburg, who coveted the title of King of Prussia, the Emperor Leopold I. acquired a powerful ally without cost. The splendor-loving Elector Frederick III. considered the outward magnificence surrounding the court of Versailles the greatest triumph of earthly majesty, and attached the highest importance to a splendid court and magnificent feasts. He considered a royal crown the most inestimable of all worldly possessions, and therefore looked with envy upon the Elector of Saxony, who had been elected King of Poland, and upon the Elector of Hanover, who had become heir-apparent to the crown of England in accordance with the Act of Settlement passed by the English Parliament in 1701. Great was the joy of Frederick III. when the Emperor Leopold I. showed a disposition to confer upon him the royal title, in return for his assurances of vigorous support in the impending war.

Frederick I., First King of Prussia, A. D. 1701–1713.

By the Treaty of the Crown, already alluded to, the Emperor Leopold I. engaged to recognize the royal dignity of the Elector of Brandenburg, in consideration of certain aids to be rendered in the field, the Imperial Diet and the Electoral Council; and the Elector Frederick III. hastened to Königsburg, where he was solemnly crowned the first *King of Prussia*, with the title of FREDERICK I., January 18, 1701.

His Coronation.

In the magnificent ceremony of coronation, King Frederick I. placed the crown of Prussia upon his own head and upon the head of his wife; and, after a succession of splendid banquets, he held a magnificent entry into Berlin, which he made the capital of the new Kingdom of Prussia, and which he attempted to render a suitable residence for royalty by public buildings, pleasure grounds and monuments of art.

His Patronage of Art and Science.

The first King of Prussia encouraged the arts and sciences. In his country-seat of Charlottenberg, where his highly-accomplished queen, Sophia Charlotte, held her gracious rule, there was always an assemblage of distinguished and intellectual people. Societies for the cultivation of the arts and sciences were established at Berlin, under the auspices of the great philosopher Leibnitz; while a flourishing university arose at Halle.

Prussia's Military Character.

The new Kingdom of Prussia, from the necessity of its position, assumed from its very beginning that military character which has ever since distinguished it. In consequence of the energetic war policy of the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg—the father of the first King of Prussia—the new kingdom was raised by a progressive military organization to a rank among the great powers of Europe.

German Imperial Army under Prince Eugene of Savoy in Italy.

With such powerful aid, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany resolved upon war with the King of France, and accordingly sent a large army to Italy under his great general, Prince Eugene of Savoy, who, as we have already seen, was a Frenchman by birth and had gained great renown in the wars against the Ottoman Empire. After massing his army near Trent, Prince Eugene crossed the Tyrolese Alps and descended upon the plain of Lombardy, in May, 1701. He defeated the French army under Marshal Catinat, and the German imperial troops occupied the entire region between the Adige and the Adda. Prince Eugene defeated Marshal Villeroi, Catinat's successor, still more signally at Chiari and Cremona.

England Insulted by Louis XIV.

While this petty war between France and Germany was in progress, Louis XIV., by one imprudent act, provoked a powerful combination against himself. On the death of the exiled James II., in 1701, Louis recognized his son as King of England, with the title of James III.,

after having promised not to do so. This act of the French king was regarded by England as a national insult; and King William III. found his Parliament and people, who before had been averse to England's participation in a Continental war, ready to second all his views. The most earnest and extensive preparations for war were now made by England.

England's Warlike Action.

The English Parliament immediately voted liberal supplies for the war, with the petition that "no peace shall be made with France until His Majesty and the nation have made reparation for the great indignity offered by the French king." Several months afterward the English Parliament also passed an "Act for abjuring the pretended Prince of Wales."

Dutch Alarmed by Louis XIV.

The Dutch were also alarmed by the expulsion of their garrisons by the French from several towns in the Spanish Netherlands which had been guaranteed to Holland as a frontier on the side of France. Thus several great European nations were ready to combine against the King of France when the favorable moment should arrive.

Second Grand Alliance against Louis XIV

Accordingly a *Second Grand Alliance* was formed against Louis XIV. by the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, King Frederick I. of Prussia, the Elector-Palatine, England and Holland. As in the First Grand Alliance, William III., King of England, Scotland and Ireland, and Stadtholder of Holland, was the soul of the Second Grand Alliance against the French monarch. His death, March 8, 1702, made no change in this respect; as his successor on the throne of England, Queen Anne, declared her determination to adhere to her illustrious predecessor's war policy.

Constitutional Change in the Dutch Republic.

An English army under the famous general, John Churchill, Earl of Marlborough, was sent to Holland. By a peaceful revolution in the Dutch Republic, the office of Stadtholder was abolished, and was succeeded by a more purely republican government supported by the De Witts. Heinsius, Grand Pensionary of Holland, firmly adhered to the policy of the Prince of Orange, and had the chief voice in the affairs of the Dutch Republic. Heinsius along with the Earl of Marlborough and Prince Eugene constituted the *Triumvirate of the Second Grand Alliance.*

France's Allies.

War Declared.

The Elector of Bavaria and his brother, the Archbishop-Elector of Cologne, entered into an alliance with the King of France. England, Holland and the German Empire declared war against France and Spain in May, 1702. Thus began the *War of the Spanish Succession,* which for twelve years convulsed Southern and Western Europe.

French Defeats.

In his former wars Louis XIV. had generally triumphed over his enemies, but during the whole course of the War of the Spanish Succession he suffered a continuation of the most calamitous defeats. He

no longer displayed the vigor and energy for which he had been before noted.

**Allied Generals.** The great generals on the side of the allies were the Earl of Marlborough, who was soon created Duke of Marlborough, the commander of the English forces, and Prince Eugene of Savoy, the famous commander of the German imperial troops. The ablest of the French generals was Marshal Villars. The other French commanders were Marshals Villeroi, Catinat, Boufflers, Marsin and Tallard, and the Dukes of Vendôme, Burgundy and Berwick—the last of whom was an illegitimate son of the ill-fated King James II. of England.

**French Generals.**

**The Earl of Marlborough.** The Earl of Marlborough was a great statesman as well as a great general, and was the most prominent political leader in England during the whole period of the War of the Spanish Succession, being the great upholder of the war policy. Both parties in England at first supported the war—the Tories because it was waged by a Tory general, and the Whigs because it was waged in the interest of a Whig policy.

**Parties in England.**

**Victories of the Earl of Marlborough in 1702.** The English and Dutch made the territory of Cologne their first object of attack. In the campaign of 1702 the skillful maneuvers of the Earl of Marlborough forced the French army under Marshal Boufflers and the Duke of Burgundy to abandon the entire line of the Meuse, and compelled the towns of Kaiserswerth, Venloo, Stephanswerth and Ruremonde to surrender in succession. Finally, the Earl of Marlborough took Liege by storm, October 28, 1702. This brilliant campaign raised the Earl of Marlborough to the first rank among European generals and vastly increased England's influence in European affairs.

**Events in Germany, Italy and Spain in 1702.** On the Upper Rhine the German imperial army under Prince Louis of Baden took Landau in September, 1702. In Northern Italy, during the year 1702, a French force under the Duke of Vendôme gained the battle of Luzara over the Austrians. In Piedmont the German imperial army under Prince Eugene conducted a campaign against the French and Spanish forces under King Philip V. During the year 1702 the united fleets of England and Holland were repulsed in an attack upon the Spanish port of Cadiz; but they succeeded in destroying in the Bay of Vigo the entire Spanish West India fleet laden with the treasures of gold and silver from Spanish America, October 22, 1702.

**Earl, now Duke of Marlborough.** As a reward for his brilliant services in the campaign of 1702, the Earl of Marlborough was created Duke of Marlborough. In 1703 he completed the conquest of the entire Electorate of Cologne, while the allied forces also took Limburg and Guelders. In Germany, during the same year, the French king's ally, the Elector of Bavaria, repulsed

a twofold invasion of his dominions and seized Ratisbon. A French army under Marshal Villars crossed the Rhine and effected a junction with the Elector of Bavaria in the valley of the Danube.

Campaign of 1703.

The Austrian forces were then diverted by Count George Ragotzky's formidable insurrection in Hungary, which continued until 1711; and the Elector of Bavaria might have taken Vienna had he not postponed his attack until the season was too far advanced. The Elector instead undertook the conquest of the Tyrol, and seized Innsbruck; but he was driven out of that mountain country by the brave Tyrolese, who rose *en masse* to resist his invasion. In the meantime the French on the Rhine had taken Breisach, defeated the German imperial army at Spirebach and recaptured Landau.

Unsuccessful Bavarian Invasion of the Tyrol.

The German imperial army now invaded Bavaria in two columns and menaced Munich. By a skilful maneuver, the French army under Marshal Villars interposed between these two imperial columns, and defeated the column under Count Styrum at Hochstädt, September 20, 1703. Marshal Villars again urged the Elector of Bavaria to invade Austria, but the Elector refused to venture upon so bold a movement, whereupon Villars asked his king to relieve him of his command, and he was succeeded by Marshal Marsin. Soon afterward the Elector of Bavaria endeavored to carry out the plan of Marshal Villars; but it was too late, as the decisive moment had passed away and a golden opportunity was thus lost.

Operations in Bavaria.

Marshal Villars and the Elector of Bavaria.

The advantages which Marshal Villars gained for France were lost by the defection of Duke Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy, who, offended because he did not receive the command of the French and Spanish forces in Italy, now deserted the cause of his son-in-law, King Philip V. of Spain, and joined the Second Grand Alliance, October 25, 1703, thus cutting off the communication between France and Italy. King Pedro II. of Portugal was also induced to enter into a perpetual alliance with England and Holland, through the efforts of the Admiral of Castile, who considered himself slighted by King Philip V. of Spain. These accessions so emboldened the allies that they now not only pushed the claims of the Austrian Archduke Charles in Italy and the Spanish Netherlands, but resolved to substitute him for the Bourbon Philip of Anjou on the throne of Spain itself.

The Grand Alliance Joined by the Duke of Savoy and the King of Portugal.

While the tyranny of the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany had caused a rebellion of his Protestant Hungarian subjects under Count George Ragotzky in 1703, religious persecution drove the Huguenots of the region of the Cevennes to rebellion against the bigoted and tyrannical King Louis XIV. during the same year, 1703; and the rebellion was suppressed with difficulty in 1704 by Marshal Villars, who had been sent into that mountain region after his return from his

Protestant Rebellions in Hungary and France.

campaign in Germany; but tranquillity was not fully restored until 1710.

**Campaigns of 1704 in Italy and Portugal.**

In 1704 the French regained their communication with Italy by reconquering the northern part of Piedmont, but they encountered serious reverses in every other quarter during the year. The Archduke Charles of Austria, with the assistance of an English and Dutch army under the Earl of Peterborough, landed in Portugal; but his advance into Spain was checked by the French army under the Duke of Berwick, the illegitimate son of the ill-fated James II. of England.

**Capture of Gibraltar by Sir George Rooke.**

The English fleet under Admiral Sir George Rooke accidentally gained possession of the strong rocky fortress of Gibraltar, in the South of Spain, August 4, 1704. It had been weakly garrisoned by the Spaniards, who considered it impregnable on account of its great natural strength. A party of English sailors from Rooke's fleet took advantage of a holiday, when the eastern side of the fortress had been left unguarded, by scaling that precipitous and almost inaccessible height, while another party stormed the South Mole; and Admiral Rooke took possession of the fortress in the name of the Queen of England.

**Its Permanent Importance to England.**

This achievement was by far the most important to England of any during the War of the Spanish Succession; as Gibraltar has ever since remained in her possession, and has been to her the key to the Mediterranean sea.

**The Duke of Marlborough's Invasion of Bavaria.**

In 1704 the seat of war was transferred to Germany, and the forces of Austria and the German Empire were hard pressed by the French and the Bavarians. The allied English and Dutch army under the Duke of Marlborough was joined by the German imperial army under Prince Louis of Baden near Ulm, in the duchy of Wurtemberg, and took the heights of Schellenberg by storm, thus gaining an important control of the Danube.

**His Junction with Prince Eugene.**

The allied army under the Duke of Marlborough crossed the Neckar, June 4, 1704, and, forcing its way into Bavaria, succeeded in effecting a junction with the German imperial army under Prince Eugene, who had advanced from Italy. The united armies, numbering eighty thousand men, won a brilliant victory over the combined French and Bavarian army of eighty thousand men under Marshals Marsin and

**Battle of Blenheim.**

Tallard and the Elector of Bavaria, at the small village of Blenheim, near Hochstädt, August 13, 1704. The victorious English and German imperialists lost thirteen thousand men, while the vanquished French and Bavarians lost thirty thousand. Marshal Tallard was taken prisoner; and all the French artillery, baggage and camp-equipage fell into the hands of the victors.

**French Retreat from Germany.**

The disastrous issue of this battle compelled the French to fall back to the west side of the Rhine and to evacuate Germany. They were

pursued across the Rhine by the victors; and the Duke of Marlborough took Treves and several other towns, and fixed his advanced posts upon the Saar. All the fortresses of Bavaria were surrendered to the German imperial troops, except Munich, which was dismantled; and the Elector of Bavaria retained only his appointment of Governor-General of the Spanish Netherlands, while his wife remained in Munich.

Imperial Occupation of Bavaria.

Thus the campaign of 1704 was favorable to the allies. The French had been driven from Germany; the English had gained possession of the key to the Mediterranean; and France was threatened with invasion by the allied army on the Moselle.

French Losses.

The year 1705 was marked by the death of the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany and the accession of his son JOSEPH I. to the hereditary Austrian territories and to the imperial throne of Germany by the choice of the Electors. The Hungarians under Count George Ragotzky were still in revolt against the House of Hapsburg, and all of Joseph's concessions did not induce them to cease their demand for a return to their former elective constitution.

Emperor Joseph I., A. D. 1705–1711.

Hungarian Revolt.

A rebellion in Bavaria was suppressed by force, and the Emperor Joseph I. resolved to blot out that Electorate from the map of Germany. Its territories were partitioned among several princes; the Upper Palatinate being restored to the Elector-Palatine, from whose dominions it had been separated since the Thirty Years' War.

Projected Partition of Bavaria.

In Northern Italy, during 1705, the French under the command of the skillful Duke of Vendôme gained many advantages over the Austrians, and finally inflicted a severe defeat upon Prince Eugene at Cassano. In Spain, during the same year, the French were forced to raise the siege of Gibraltar; and the English under the Earl of Peterborough took Barcelona, thus securing the allegiance of the provinces of Catalonia and Valencia for the Archduke Charles of Austria, who himself was present at the surrender of Barcelona, and was hailed with acclamations as King of Spain.

French Victories in Italy in 1705.

English Capture of Barcelona.

The campaign of 1706 was a glorious one for the allies, who acquired the supremacy in the Spanish Netherlands, in Italy and in Spain. In the Spanish Netherlands the allied English and Dutch armies under the Duke of Marlborough defeated the French army of eighty thousand men under Marshal Villeroi in the decisive battle of Ramillies, May 23, 1706, thus placing the provinces of Brabant and Flanders in the possession of the allies. The Duke of Marlborough also took the towns of Brussels, Antwerp, Ghent, Ostend, Menin, Dendermonde and Ath; and the Archduke Charles was proclaimed at Brussels.

The Duke of Marlborough in the Spanish Netherlands.

Battle of Ramillies.

In Italy, during 1706, the French under the Duke of Orleans, the nephew of Louis XIV., and Marshal Marsin laid siege to Turin; but

Prince Eugene in Italy.

Battle of Turin.

the German imperial army under Prince Eugene, after being joined by the forces of that commander's cousin, Duke Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy, advanced to the relief of the city, and defeated the French so disastrously before the walls of the city, September 7, 1706, that they were obliged to raise the siege and evacuate Italy. Thereupon the Archduke Charles was proclaimed in Milan, and all Lombardy was occupied by the victorious German imperialists.

Capture of Madrid by the Allies.

In 1706 the province of Aragon also proclaimed the Archduke Charles; and the allied English, Dutch and Portuguese armies under Lord Galway advanced from Portugal and captured Madrid, after Philip V. had fled from the city. But the Spanish people preferred the Bourbon king to the Austrian Hapsburg, and rose against the invaders, drove out the allied garrisons, and compelled the two allied armies to retreat into Valencia. The English took Alicante and Cartagena, but the French under the Duke of Berwick recaptured the latter town. During the same year Pedro II. of Portugal died, and was succeeded by his son JOHN V.

Other Events in Spain in 1706.

Offers of Louis XIV.

Humiliated by these reverses, Louis XIV. offered to abandon the whole Spanish inheritance, except the Italian possessions, to the Archduke Charles; but the allies demanded all, and so the war continued.

Battle of Almanza.

Fortune now smiled on the French arms in Spain. In the meantime Philip V. reëntered Madrid in triumph amid the rejoicings of the populace. The allied English, Dutch and Portuguese army under Lord Galway was almost annihilated by the French army under the Duke of Berwick in the decisive battle of Almanza, April 25, 1707, in which the allies lost all their standards, baggage and artillery. Thereupon the provinces of Valencia and Aragon submitted to Philip V.; and the towns of Lerida and Ciudad Rodrigo—the former on the frontier of Catalonia, and the latter on that of Portugal—were recaptured by the victorious French and Spanish forces. But Barcelona gallantly resisted the arms of Philip V. until the end of the war.

Other French Victories in Spain in 1707.

Prince Eugene Forced to Raise the Siege of Toulon.

The allies were almost as unsuccessful in Northern Italy and in their invasion of France. Prince Eugene and the Duke of Savoy led their united armies into Provence and laid siege to Toulon, while the English fleet under Sir Cloudesley Shovel blockaded that great French port by sea; but a French force under Marshal Tessé advanced to the relief of the beleaguered city, and forced the allies to raise the siege after they had lost ten thousand men.

Campaigns of 1707 in Italy, Germany and the Spanish Netherlands.

In Southern Italy the whole Kingdom of Naples was conquered for the Archduke Charles by a small German imperial army under Marshal Daun during the same year, 1707. In the Spanish Netherlands during that year the Duke of Marlborough was held in check by the French army under the Duke of Vendôme. On the side of the Rhine

the French under Marshal Villars performed the brilliant exploit of forcing the lines of Stolhoffen, hitherto considered impregnable.

France's Exhaustion.

Though France was successful for the moment her situation was yearly becoming more critical. The kingdom was exhausted by the great expense of the struggle. Every means of raising funds had been resorted to—"loans at ruinous rates of interest, the creation of new and frivolous offices, assignments on the revenue of future years, vexatious taxes, immense issues of paper money." Fresh embarrassments followed each new expedient, and the French people were discontented, so that murmurs were heard on every side. Chamillart, Minister of Finance, was succeeded by Desmartes, Colbert's nephew; but the new Minister was unable to afford relief to the suffering nation. Louis XIV. had well-nigh ruined the industry of France to gratify his religious bigotry, and was now reaping the fruits of his unstatesmanlike policy.

Marlborough and Eugene in the Spanish Netherlands.

Under political stress at home the Duke of Marlborough felt that his future interests depended upon a vigorous campaign, especially as the French under the Duke of Vendôme had by treachery gained possession of Ghent and Bruges, thus regaining some of their lost ground in the Spanish Netherlands. The Duke of Marlborough, at the head of the English and Dutch army in the Spanish Netherlands, was reinforced by the German imperial army under Prince Eugene; and the two great generals increased their military renown by their brilliant victory over the French army under the Dukes of Vendôme and Burgundy at Oudenarde, on the Scheldt, July 11, 1708. Soon afterward the allies took Lille from Marshal Boufflers after a long and difficult siege, October 22, 1708, thus opening the way to Paris. They also rescued Brussels from the Elector of Bavaria, and recovered Ghent and Bruges, thus regaining all of Spanish Flanders and occupying part of French Flanders.

Battle of Oudenarde.

Allied Success in the Mediterranean.

In the Mediterranean during 1708 the English fleet under Admiral Sir John Leake received the submission of the island of Sardinia to the Archduke Charles of Austria, and established a British garrison at Port Mahon. The islands of Majorca and Iviça had already declared for the Archduke Charles.

Elation of the Allies.

These brilliant successes of the allies in the campaign of 1708 raised their confidence to the highest pitch; and Lord Godolphin and the Duke of Marlborough found the English Parliament willing to grant additional supplies for the war, while the Dutch agreed to augment their troops, and the German imperialists promised to show more activity.

King Louis XIV. was disheartened by defeat, his treasury was exhausted, and his counsels were distracted. In addition to her military

**Famine and Suffering in France.**

reverses, France was beginning to suffer the horrors of famine, caused by the severity of the winter of 1708–'9, which froze the vineyards, orchards and the grain already sown. Whole families of poor were frozen to death in their miserable hovels. Even the Rhone was frozen over, and the Mediterranean seemed almost transformed into a polar sea. The misery of the French people produced a universal outcry for peace throughout the kingdom, and the popular discontent manifested itself in riots and other violent demonstrations.

**Insulting Demands of the Allies.**

Humiliated and chagrined, Louis XIV. was obliged to heed the outcry of his subjects for peace; but the allies, doubting his sincerity, scornfully rejected his overtures, and demanded the most humiliating terms as the price of peace—terms which he could not accept without sacrificing his honor and dignity. They demanded that he himself should aid them in driving his grandson Philip V. from the throne of Spain. He refused to entertain such a proposition, and appealed to the patriotism of his subjects to sustain him in another effort.

**French Patriotism.**

The haughty and insolent demands of the allies aroused the pride of the French people, who, even in their distress, revolted at such indignity, and resolved to support their king in continuing the war rather than submit to such humiliation. The French king and many of his nobles sent their plate to the mint, and by a series of vigorous measures funds were raised for the expenses of the war during the ensuing year, while the sum of thirty-five millions was obtained from the Spanish West Indies.

**Marlborough and Eugene in the Spanish-Netherlands.**

In 1709 the able Marshal Villars was assigned to the command of the French army in the Spanish Netherlands. The allied English, Dutch and German imperial armies under the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene captured Tournay, and defeated the French army of eighty thousand men under Marshals Villars and Boufflers in the bloody battle of Malplaquet, September 11, 1709, in which Marshal Villars himself was wounded and borne from the field, and his army fled with the loss of ten thousand men, while the victorious allies lost twenty thousand. The vanquished French army retreated in good order to Valenciennes, and Marshal Villars wrote to his king that another such defeat would secure France against the efforts of the Second Grand Alliance. Mons surrendered to the allies immediately after the battle, and was occupied by them.

**Battle of Malplaquet.**

**Insolent Demands of the Allies again Rejected by Louis XIV**

In 1710 Louis XIV. again solicited peace, offering to make great concessions to the allies. He even offered to recognize the Archduke Charles as King of Spain, to furnish no more assistance to his grandson Philip V., and even to supply the allies with money to prosecute the war against him. But the allied powers demanded that Louis himself should send an army into Spain to assist in driving out his

grandson. This insulting demand Louis rejected with scorn, saying: "If I must continue the war, I should rather fight against my enemies than against my own grandson." The French people, who had clamored for peace, shared the indignation of their monarch, and were resolved not to submit to any such degrading and abjectly-humiliating conditions.

**French Victories in Spain in 1710.**

Louis XIV. was much encouraged by the successes of his arms in Spain during the year 1710. The campaign opened with the victories of the Austrians under Count Stahremberg in the battles of Almenara and Saragossa; but afterward the entire English corps under Stanhope was captured by the Duke of Vendôme, after a severe battle at Brihuega, December 9, 1710. The Duke of Vendôme defeated Stahremberg at Villaviciosa, after a bloody battle of two days, December 11, 1710. These two great victories secured Philip V. on the throne of Spain, and the Archduke Charles of Austria was driven from that country.

**Death of Emperor Joseph I.**

**Emperor Charles VI., A. D. 1711–1740.**

Early in 1711 an event occurred which changed the views and situation of all parties. This was the death of the Emperor Joseph I. of Germany, and the accession of his brother, the Archduke Charles, the competitor of Philip of Anjou, to the thrones of Austria and the German Empire, with the title of CHARLES VI. The union of the crowns of Spain and Germany, in the person of a prince of the House of Hapsburg, was as alarming to the other powers of Europe as the union of the crowns of Spain and France, under a prince of the House of Bourbon.

**The Duke of Marlborough and War Politics in England.**

Although both parties in England had at first supported the war—the Whigs because it was a Whig war, and the Tories because it was waged by a Tory general—the Tories gradually drifted away from the Duke of Marlborough's war policy, and the great general and political leaders was obliged to drift away gradually from the Tory party and become the leader of the Whigs, who upheld his policy. The English people gradually grew weary of the war on account of the heavy burden of taxation which it entailed, finding little compensation in a struggle in which they bore the chief burdens while reaping few advantages, the chief of which was the military prestige of the Duke of Marlborough's great victories.

**Political Change in England.**

The change of public opinion in England in opposition to the war ultimately grew so strong that the Whigs were driven from power in 1711 and were succeeded in office by the Tories, who were now thoroughly opposed to the war. The leaders of the new Tory Ministry were Robert Harley, Earl of Oxford, and Henry St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke, who soon dissolved Parliament, and were sustained by the election of a Tory majority in the new House of Commons.

Disgrace of the Duke of Marlborough.

The Duke of Marlborough, who had so nobly sustained the military honor of England in this war, fought his last campaign in 1711, during which he carried the intrenched camp of Marshal Villars at Arleux and captured the strongly-fortified town of Bouchain. Being accused of prolonging the war unnecessarily for his own personal and private benefit, and being charged with avarice and corruption in enriching himself in army contracts, he was censured by a vote of the House of Commons and deprived of his military command and of all his civil offices, and was succeeded in his command by the Duke of Ormond, who had secret orders not to fight. The disgraced general and political leader at once retired into voluntary exile from his native land.

Peace Negotiations.

The new Tory Ministry of England soon entered into secret peace negotiations with France, and a preliminary treaty between England and France was signed at London in October, 1711. Through the influence of England under her Tory Ministers, conferences for peace opened at Utrecht, in Holland, as early as January, 1712. Eighty plenipotentiaries of the allied powers met the three French envoys, but negotiations progressed very slowly, through the opposition of the Dutch and German imperial ambassadors.

Successes of Marshal Villars.

The interests of France in the peace congress at Utrecht were materially improved by the brilliant successes of Marshal Villars, who, in the campaign of 1712, totally outgeneraled Prince Eugene, defeated and captured an allied force under the English Duke of Albemarle at Denain, July 24, 1712, and recovered Douay, Le Quesnoy and Bouchain in quick succession, thus wresting from the allies all their acquisitions in the North of France.

Domestic Afflictions of Louis XIV.

In the meantime Louis XIV. met with many sad domestic afflictions. His only legitimate son, the Dauphin, died in April, 1711; leaving three sons—the Duke of Burgundy, King Philip V. of Spain and the Duke of Berry. The young Duke of Burgundy succeeded his father as heir to the crown of France. His wife, Adelaide of Savoy, who was greatly beloved by Louis XIV. and his court, died of a malignant fever in February, 1712; and her husband died of the same disease six days later. Their eldest child, the youthful Duke of Brittany, then became heir to the French throne, but also died three weeks later. His brother, the little Duke of Anjou, the next heir to the French crown, was a weak and sickly child; and in case of his death King Philip V. of Spain would have become heir to the throne of France.

Peace of Utrecht.

This threatened union of the crowns of France and Spain alarmed the allied powers, and the Tory Ministers of England were obliged to threaten that they would renew the war unless Philip V. of Spain renounced his claim to the French crown, A. D. 1712. France and Spain conceded this point, thus facilitating the conclusion of a defini-

tive treaty of peace between France and England, to the great disgust of the Dutch and the German Emperor. Finally, April 11, 1713, the Peace of Utrecht was signed by the plenipotentiaries of France, England, Holland, Spain, Portugal, Prussia and Savoy.

Terms of the Treaty.

By the Peace of Utrecht, England and the other allied powers recognized Philip V. as King of Spain on condition that the crowns of France and Spain should never be united; while Louis XIV. acknowledged Queen Anne as the rightful sovereign of England and the Elector George of Hanover as her rightful heir and successor. England received the fortress of Gibraltar and the island of Minorca from Spain, and Nova Scotia, Newfoundland and the Hudson's Bay Territory from France. The Dutch were allowed to garrison a line of frontier fortresses in the Spanish Netherlands, as a barrier against France. France recovered Lille and agreed to dismantle the fortifications of Dunkirk. Philip V. of Spain agreed to cede Milan, Naples, the island of Sardinia and the Spanish Netherlands to the Austrian Hapsburgs; and he also ceded the island of Sicily to Duke Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy with the title of king. The Duke of Savoy recovered his lost territories, which were divided from the dominions of France by the watershed of the Alps. The new Kingdom of Prussia was recognized; and Louis XIV. ceded to its king, as representative of the House of Orange, the principality of Neuchâtel, in Switzerland; while King Frederick I. of Prussia relinquished his claims to the principality of Orange.

French Successes over the German Imperial Armies.

The Emperor Charles VI. of Germany refused to accede to the Treaty of Utrecht, so that hostilities continued between France and the German Empire. In the campaign which followed, the French under Marshal Villars achieved brilliant successes in the Palatinate, defeating the German imperial forces and capturing Spires, Worms, Landau and Freiburg. These reverses of the imperial arms induced the Emperor Charles VI. to consent to peace, and a series of peace conferences were held by Marshal Villars and Prince Eugene. When the two great generals met in friendly conference for the first time, on this occasion, Prince Eugene said to Marshal Villars: "We are not enemies. Your enemies are at Versailles, and mine are at Vienna."

Peace of Rastadt

Accordingly the Peace of Rastadt was concluded between France and Austria, March 7, 1714. By this treaty the Austrian Hapsburgs received the Spanish Netherlands, the Duchy of Milan, the Kingdom of Naples and the island of Sardinia—all of which were thus separated from the dominion of the King of Spain; while the Emperor Charles VI. recognized Philip V. as King of Spain. By this treaty the Emperor also allowed the exiled Electors of Bavaria and Cologne to return to their dominions; and Louis XIV. recognized the

new Kingdom of Prussia by acknowledging the royal title of Frederick William I., who became King of Prussia upon the death of his father Frederick I., in 1713. The Peace of Baden, between France and the German Empire, in September, 1714, finally ended the War of the Spanish Succession. Thus, after a war which had been, on the whole, disastrous to Louis XIV., that monarch obtained honorable terms of peace; and the allied powers were punished for their former unreasonable and insolent demands.

Peace of Baden.

France's Deplorable Condition.

Peace came none to soon for France, whose condition, in consequence of the long and expensive wars occasioned by the ambition of her warlike monarch, was at this time most deplorable. The public debt was enormous, the nation was almost financially ruined, and the resources of the kingdom were almost exhausted; and nothing but a long period of peace would enable the country to recuperate. The revenues were mortgaged for many years to come, as the national credit was almost destroyed. Agriculture, manufactures and all branches of industry were reduced to the lowest state of depression. Bankruptcy was general throughout France, while thousands of the laboring classes were perishing by famine and disease. Such was the dear price paid by Louis XIV. to seat a Bourbon on the throne of Spain, while that kingdom was deprived by treaty of some of its most valuable foreign possessions.

Exhaustion of the French Treasury.

The great talents of Louis XIV. and his rich inheritance would have given him a leading power among nations in any case; but his immoderate thirst for conquest made him the scourge of Europe, instead of its benefactor. He was obliged to replenish his treasury, so drained by his costly and ruinous wars, by resorting to the most oppressive measures to wring supplies from his starving subjects.

Persecution of the Jansenists.

Conscious of his failures and the worthlessness of the military glory which he had cherished in his younger and more prosperous days, Louis XIV. sought refuge in an abject superstition which inflicted a final injury upon his kingdom. Influenced by his confessor, the Jesuit Le Tellier, he bitterly persecuted the new Catholic sect of *Jansenists*—the followers of Jansen—the steadfast opponents of the moral, political and doctrinal system of the Jesuits.

Regency and Succession.

The assistance which Louis XIV. rendered the Pretender James Stuart in his invasion of Scotland in 1715, and the French king's evasion of several other articles of the Peace of Utrecht, would probably again have broken the peace of Europe had the life of the "Grand Monarque" been prolonged. But his health had been failing for some time. Feeling that his end was approaching, he appointed a Council of Regency under the presidency of the Duke of Orleans to conduct the government during the minority of his great-grandson, a

GALILEO BEFORE THE INQUISITION

From a Painting by an unknown Artist

child of five years, who had become the heir to the French throne in consequence of the death of the king's legitimate children and grandchildren. In order to provide for the succession in case of the little prince's death, Louis XIV. caused his two sons by Madame de Montespan—the Duke of Maine and the Count of Toulouse—to be legitimated and placed in the line of succession.

**Illness and Death of Louis XIV.**

Louis XIV. was soon seized with a violent fever; and on his deathbed he addressed to his great-grandson and heir the following admonition, which was a condemnation of his own lifelong policy: "Live at peace with your neighbors. Do not imitate me in my fondness for war, nor in my exorbitant expenditure. Endeavor to relieve the people at the earliest possible moment, and thus accomplish what, unfortunately, I myself am unable to do." Louis XIV. died at Versailles, September 1, 1715, at the age of seventy-seven years, and after a reign of seventy-two years, or fifty-four from the expiration of the regency. His great-grandson Louis XV. then began his long reign of fifty-nine years, A. D. 1715–1774.

## SECTION VIII.—FRENCH COLONIES IN NORTH AMERICA (A. D. 1605–1763).

**French on the St. Lawrence, Great Lakes and the Mississippi.**

While the English were colonizing the Atlantic coast of North America, from New England to Georgia, the French were exploring and settling the valley of the St. Lawrence, the shores of the Great Lakes and the valley of the Mississippi. In 1605 the Huguenot De Monts founded the first permanent French settlement in North America, at Port Royal, now Annapolis, in Nova Scotia; giving the territory, now known as Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, the name of *Acadia*.

**Acadia.**

**Quebec Founded by Samuel Champlain.**

In 1608 Samuel Champlain, a Frenchman, founded the city of Quebec, on the St. Lawrence river; and in the following year, 1609, he discovered the beautiful lake, between the present States of Vermont and New York, which bears his name. Champlain and his followers allied themselves with the Huron and Algonquin Indians, and defeated their foes, the Five Nations, of New York. Thenceforth the Five Nations were the firm friends of the English and the bitter enemies of the French.

**Indian Wars.**

**The Mississippi Explored by Joliet, Marquette and La Salle.**

In 1679 Jacques Marquette, a French Jesuit, and Louis Joliet, a French Canadian, entered the Mississippi river from the Wisconsin, and, in two birch-bark canoes, sailed down the great river to a point below the mouth of the Arkansas. In 1682 Robert de La Salle, a French Canadian officer, after exploring the shores of the Great Lakes, entered

the Mississippi from the Illinois, and sailed up the mighty stream almost to its source, and then down to its mouth, and, naming the entire Mississippi valley *Louisiana*, in honor of his king, Louis XIV., claimed that extensive and fertile region for France.

**French Settlements in the Mississippi Valley.**

In the latter part of the seventeenth century, and in the beginning of the eighteenth, the French made settlements on the banks of the Mississippi river, on the shores of the Great Lakes and on the coast of the Gulf of Mexico. Kaskaskia, in the present State of Illinois, was founded in 1683; Cahokia, also in the present Illinois, was founded about the year 1700 or 1701; Detroit, in Michigan, in 1701; and Vincennes, in Indiana, in 1705. In 1699 a company of French colonists, headed by Lemoine d'Iberville, a French Canadian, settled Biloxi, in the present State of Mississippi; and in 1702 most of the settlers of Biloxi founded the city of Mobile, in the present Alabama.

**Anthony Crozat.**

**Mississippi Company.**

**New Orleans.**

In 1712 Louisiana was leased for a stated period to Anthony Crozat, a wealthy French merchant, under whose auspices was built Fort Rosalie—the beginning of the present city of Natchez, in Mississippi. In 1767 Crozat relinquished his lease; and Louisiana was for fifteen years under the control of the Mississippi Company, which the Scotchman John Law had organized in France. Bienville, the governor sent to Louisiana by this Company, founded New Orleans in 1718.

**Wars with the Natchez and Chickasaw Indians.**

In 1729 the Natchez Indians, exasperated at the threatened encroachments of the French, fell upon the French settlement at Fort Rosalie, massacred the men and carried the women into captivity. In revenge for this outrage, a body of French troops almost exterminated the Natchez the following year, 1730. A few years later the French made two unsuccessful attempts to subjugate the warlike Chickasaws, another powerful Indian tribe.

**French Forts.**

The French built a chain of forts between Montreal and New Orleans, the most important of which were Detroit, erected in 1701; Niagara, in 1726, and Crown Point, in 1730.

**Jesuit Mission Stations.**

The greater number of French settlements in the Mississippi Valley and on the shores of the Great Lakes were simply Jesuit mission stations and were widely scattered over a vast extent of country, and were not flourishing colonial establishments like those of the English on the Atlantic coast in the East. The Jesuits had great influence with the Indian tribes of the interior of the North American continent, and devoted their lives to the conversion of these savages to Roman Catholic Christianity. Even such settlements as Kaskaskia and Cahokia, on the Mississippi, within the domain of the present Illinois, were simply Jesuit mission stations. Others were Sault Ste. Marie, in the present Michigan, founded in 1668; St. Esprit, in the present Wisconsin, founded in 1666. Other French settlements or mission stations were those in the present Minnesota by Du Luth in 1678, by

Father Hennepin in 1680 and by Perrot at Lake Pepin in 1688; that on the site of Dubuque, in the present Iowa, in 1686; that of Arkansas Post, in the present Arkansas, in 1705; Green Bay, in the present Wisconsin, in 1745; two in the present Missouri, St. Genevieve in 1755, and St. Louis in 1764; and that by Julien Dubuque at Dubuque, in the present Iowa, in 1788.

## SECTION IX.—SPAIN AND PORTUGAL IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

Philip III., of Spain, A. D. 1598–1621.

PHILIP III., who became King of Spain upon the death of his father Philip II., September 13, 1698, was an insignificant monarch. Spain had now entered fairly on her decline. The bigoted policy of Philip II. had robbed his kingdom of its power and glory, and had laid the foundations of its ruin. Still Spain was a great and formidable kingdom for some time longer, but she rapidly declined during the seventeenth century.

Banishment of the Moors from Spain

Philip III. continued his bigoted father's policy of ruin. In 1609 he issued an edict banishing the oppressed Moriscoes, or Christianized Moors, from Spain. As the export of gold from Spain was forbidden, the unfortunate Moriscoes were obliged to abandon most of their property, which was siezed by the Spanish government. The exile of the Moriscoes was conducted with the greatest cruelty. More than one hundred and thirty thousand embarked for Africa, but ninety-five thousand of these perished of hunger and exhaustion on the way. One hundred thousand others sought refuge in France, but were permitted to remain in that country only on condition of embracing Roman Catholic Christianity, which they had just rejected in Spain. They refused to do so, and were ordered to leave France. While waiting for transportation so many died in the French ports and were thrown into the sea that the fish were supposed to be poisoned.

Its Ruinous Effect.

By this cruel act Philip III. had dealt a fatal blow to the prosperity of his own kingdom. Miles of fertile fields that had been rich in the olive and the vine lay waste for want of tillage; and Spain has not yet recovered from the ruinous effects of the banishment of the Moriscoes, which was to her what the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes was to France.

Philip IV., A. D. 1621–1665.

Philip III. died in March, 1621, and was succeeded as King of Spain by his son PHILIP IV., who was then only sixteen years old, and who was superior to his father in many respects. Under Philip IV. the decay of Spain's greatness went on very rapidly. We have already alluded to the part which Spain took in the Thirty Years' War in

Spain in the Thirty Years' War.

Germany. She gained nothing by that struggle, all her earlier advantages having been wrested from her during the progress of the war. While the war was in progress Spain was confronted with revolts in Catalonia, Portugal and Naples.

Revolts in Biscay and Catalonia.

The home forces of Spain were occupied for some time by the revolt of the provinces of Biscay and Catalonia. The intolerable outrages committed by a Spanish army quartered in those provinces during the campaign of 1639–'40 against the French exasperated the inhabitants. Bands of half-savage mountaineers, who were on their way to Barcelona to hire themselves out for labor in the fields, caught the fury; and by a sudden impulse all Castilians or foreigners in the city were massacred. The Catalonian insurgents sent to all the European powers a statement of their grievances against the Spanish government, and by a formal treaty Louis XIII. engaged to provide a military force to aid the Catalans. A Spanish army of twenty thousand men was already on its march to the frontier of Catalonia, marking its route by fire and blood; and the rebels soon transferred their allegiance to France.

French Aid to the Catalonian Rebels.

Successful Revolt of Portugal under the Duke of Braganza.

Spain suffered a more serious and permanent loss in the liberation of Portugal, in 1640. During her sixty years' union with Spain, Portugal had been oppressed, humiliated and impoverished by her Spanish conquerors. Portuguese commerce with the East and West Indies was crippled, the Portuguese navy was destroyed, and the Portuguese people were crushed with taxes which defrayed the cost of erecting unnecessary palaces for the Kings of Spain. When commanded to march against the revolted Catalans the Portuguese nobles and officers resolved to follow the example of those rebels. The Spanish guards of Lisbon and the vice-queen's palace were cut down. The Duke of Braganza, a descendant of the former Kings of Portugal, was proclaimed King of Portugal with the title of John IV., thus completing the revolution, A. D. 1640.

Portuguese Declaration of Independence.

With the single exception of Ceuta, in North-western Africa, the Portuguese colonies overpowered their Spanish garrisons; and the Portuguese *Cortes* which assembled at Lisbon in 1641 declared the right of every nation to renounce the rule of a tyrant, even if he were a legitimate sovereign, and not a usurper like the King of Spain. This dynasty still reigns over Portugal, and a branch of it reigned over Brazil while that country was an empire.

Revolt of Naples under Masaniello.

In 1647 Naples also revolted against Spain, the insurrection in that Italian dependency of the Spanish Hapsburgs being under the leadership of the fisherman Masaniello. Although Ferdinand the Catholic and the Emperor Charles V. had promised the Neapolitans that no taxes should be levied upon them without the consent of the Estates of

Naples, the Spanish kings were accustomed to disregard their promises, as they looked upon their Italian possessions simply as an inexhaustible source of revenue. The Spanish viceroy of Naples neglected to summon the Neapolitan Estates, and levied taxes at his own pleasure. All the simplest necessaries of life were taxed heavily; and in 1647 an impost was levied upon fruit, the chief article of food that hitherto had escaped this burden. This caused the insurrection of the poor of Naples, who had already suffered severely from the oppressive taxes.

**Betrayal and Assassination of Masaniello.**

Under the leadership of the young Amalfi fisherman Masaniello, the insurgents of Naples obtained possession of the city of Naples, burned the custom-house and forced the viceroy to take refuge in the Castle of St. Elmo. About the same time the inhabitants of Palermo rose in arms against the Spanish viceroy of Sicily. The viceroy of Naples succeeded in gaining over many of the rebels by promises which he never intended to fulfill, and caused their leader Masaniello to be assassinated, thus ending the revolt.

**Another Revolt in Naples under Gennaro Annesi.**

Another revolt broke out at Naples in August, 1647. The rebels compelled Don John of Austria, the illegitimate son of King Philip IV. of Spain, to recall his army after several days of street-fighting; but they appeared utterly helpless since the assassination of Masaniello, in whom they reposed the most implicit faith. They selected Gennaro Annesi for their leader, and by his advice they invited the Duke of Guise to place himself at their head and to assist them in founding a republic.

**Submission and Punishment of the Rebels.**

The Duke of Guise came promptly, as he expected to recover the possessions of the House of Anjou, from which he was descended; but the Neapolitans soon saw through his design and became discontented. The duke mortally offended Gennaro Annesi, who gratified his revenge by betraying the city to the Spaniards, thus ending the revolt. The Spaniards executed Gennaro Annesi and many others of the popular party, and crushed the spirit of the Neapolitan people by a series of barbarous cruelties. The revolt in Sicily was ended more easily. The Spanish viceroy disarmed the rebels by a liberal proclamation of amnesty, and then shot down many of them in the streets.

**Independence of the Dutch Republic.**

The revolt of Naples, and the great strain put upon the resources of Philip IV. by the Thirty Years' War, reduced him to the necessity of concluding the Peace of Münster with the Dutch Republic, in January, 1648; thus acknowledging that vigorous young state as an independent power among the nations of the earth, and ceding to it the towns of Dutch Flanders and the Dutch conquests in the East Indies, in Africa and in the New World.

**Continued War with France.**

As we have seen, the Peace of Westphalia, October 24, 1648, which ended the Thirty Years' War, did not end hostilities between Spain and

France, which continued eleven years longer, until ended by the Peace of the Pyrenees, November 7, 1659, by which Spain was obliged to cede to France the county of Roussillon, north of the Pyrenees, and the county of Artois, in the Spanish Netherlands. Spain retained the rest of the Spanish Netherlands, and also Franche-Comté, the Duchy of Milan and the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily. By the Treaty of the Pyrenees, Spain surrendered the last vestige of supremacy which she had exercised in Europe since the reign of Philip II.; and she rapidly sunk into insignificance.

**Peace of the Pyrenees.**

**Charles II., A. D. 1665–1700.**

Philip IV. died in September, 1665, and was succeeded as King of Spain by his son CHARLES II., the child of a second marriage. Excepting the wars with Louis XIV. of France, the reign of Charles II. was uneventful. He was the last of the dynasty of the Spanish Hapsburgs, who had reigned over the Spanish dominions for almost two centuries, beginning with Charles I., the Emperor Charles V. of Germany, in 1516.

**War of the Spanish Succession and House of Bourbon.**

As Charles II. was childless, his death in 1700 gave rise to a contest for the Spanish dominions, which brought on the general European struggle known as the War of the Spanish Succession, A. D. 1702–1714, which placed the French House of Bourbon on the Spanish throne, in the person of Duke Philip of Anjou, who became PHILIP V. By the Peace of Utrecht, in 1713, Spain ceded the Spanish Netherlands, Milan, Naples and Sicily to the Emperor Charles VI. of Germany, the head of the Austrian House of Hapsburg and the competitor of Philip of Anjou for the Spanish throne; while Gibraltar and Minorca were ceded to England, and Spain and Portugal resumed their former boundaries.

**Philip V., A. D. 1700–1746.**

**Portugal during Her Sixty Years' Union with Spain.**

During the sixty years' subjection of Portugal to the Spanish crown the greatness of Portugal steadily declined. The Portuguese possessions in North-western Africa passed into the hands of Spain, and Ceuta was thus permanently lost to Portugal. The Dutch became formidable rivals of the Portuguese on the western coast of Africa, and deprived them of much of their commerce in that quarter. In the East Indies the Dutch also seized many of the Portuguese possessions and absorbed the Portuguese trade, thus giving the death-blow to the Portuguese supremacy in that part of the world, and placing the remaining Portuguese settlements in Southern and Eastern Asia in great peril. At the same time the English laid the foundations of their empire in India, which was destined eventually to overshadow both the Portuguese and Dutch dominions in that quarter.

**Brazil during that Period.**

During the same period the European enemies of Spain also attacked Brazil, which Portuguese dependency also had fallen into the hands of Spain. The Portuguese settlements in Brazil were often at-

tacked and plundered by French, English and Dutch fleets. In 1612 the French seized Maranhao and founded the city of Sao Luiz do Maranhao, but in 1615 the Portuguese expelled the French from that town. In 1623 a Dutch fleet captured Bahia, but in 1625 the Dutch garrison in that town was forced to surrender to the Portuguese. In 1629 the Dutch captured Pernambuco; after which they rapidly extended their conquests in Brazil, so that by 1645 they had possession of all Brazil north of Pernambuco, except Para.

Revolt of Portugal against Spain.

The Portuguese universally detested the Spaniards; and the Spanish rule was so oppressive that the popular discontent in Portugal steadily increased, until 1640, when the Portuguese rose in revolt and proclaimed the Duke of Braganza King of Portugal with the title of JOHN IV. France, England and Holland at once recognized the independence of Portugal under the House of Braganza, France and Holland being engaged in hostilities with Spain during the progress of the Thirty Years' War. John IV. successfully resisted the efforts which Spain made during his entire reign to reconquer Portugal.

John IV., A. D. 1640–1656.

Portuguese Recovery of Brazil.

During the reign of John IV. the Portuguese gradually drove the Dutch from Brazil, and recovered that entire dependency by 1654. Brazil was erected into a principality, and the heir-apparent to the crown of Portugal was invested with the title of Prince of Brazil. In the meantime Brazil had prospered steadily, in spite of the struggles with the Dutch and the exactions of the home government. The prosperity of the province was based on agriculture.

Alfonso VI., A. D. 1656–1683.

King John IV. died in 1656, and was succeeded on the throne of Portugal by his second son, ALFONSO VI., whose elder brother had died some time before. In 1660 Holland concluded a treaty with Portugal renouncing all her claims to Brazil. In 1661 a treaty of alliance was concluded between Portugal and England; by which the Princess Catharine of Braganza, the daughter of King Alfonso VI., was married to King Charles II. of England; while Portugal ceded Tangier, in North-western Africa, and Bombay, in Hindoostan, to England as Catharine's dowry. This treaty was the beginning of intimate relations between Portugal and England which lasted a long time and had a marked effect upon the fortunes of Portugal.

Alliance of Portugal and England.

Portuguese Victories over the Spaniards.

King Alfonso VI. was so weak and contemptible a monarch that the Spaniards felt encouraged to prosecute hostilities against the Portuguese with increased vigor; but the Portuguese were victorious, the Spaniards being decisively defeated at Almexial in 1663 and at Villaviciosa in 1666. The battle of Villaviciosa virtually secured the independence of Portugal, though Spain still refused to acknowledge it.

Dom Pedro's Regency.

The Portuguese had become so disgusted with Alfonso VI. that the Portuguese Cortes deprived him of his authority as an imbecile, in

1667, and made his brother Dom Pedro regent. A dispensation was obtained from Pope Clement IX. annulling Alfonso's marriage; and his divorced queen, Mary of Savoy, then married Dom Pedro. One of the first acts of the regency was the Peace of Lisbon with Spain, February 13, 1668, by which Spain treated with the Portuguese as a sovereign and independent nation, and a mutual restitution of all conquests during the war was made, with the exception of the city of Ceuta, in North-western Africa, which remained to Spain. The subjects of both nations recovered all property alienated or confiscated during the war. By the Peace of The Hague between Portugal and Holland, July 31, 1669, the Dutch were left in possession of all the conquests which they had made from the Portuguese in the East Indies.

Peace of Lisbon with Spain.

Peace of The Hague with Holland.

Pedro II., A. D. 1683–1706.

King Alfonso VI. was closely confined until his death, in 1683, when the regent Dom Pedro ascended the throne of Portugal with the title of Pedro II. In 1696 gold was discovered in Brazil, and diamonds also were found in that country about the same time. These discoveries vastly increased the wealth of Brazil, and poured a steady stream of wealth into the Portuguese treasury. In 1703 Portugal, by an offensive and defensive alliance with England, was drawn into the War of the Spanish Succession. During the war Pedro II. died, and was succeeded as King of Portugal by his son John V., A. D. 1706, during whose reign Spain by treaty formally acknowledged the independence of Portugal, A. D. 1737.

John V., A. D. 1706–1737.

Weakness and Decay of Portugal.

The history of Portugal thenceforth is generally unimportant and uneventful. Though the country had recovered its independence, the restored Kingdom of Portugal lacked vigor, and has manifested the same tendency to decay that has characterized Spain since the reign of Philip II. Though Portugal had recovered her independence through the growing feebleness and decline of Spain, the restored kingdom was unable to recover more than half its old colonial empire, most of its former possessions in the East Indies having come into the possession of the young and vigorous Dutch Republic. Only in Brazil and on the east and west coast of Africa and in the Azores and Cape de Verd Islands was Portugal able to reëstablish her old dominion.

Loss of Portuguese Colonies.

## SECTION X.—SEVENTEENTH CENTURY CIVILIZATION.

Great Results of the Seventeenth Century.

The Reformation achieved its final triumph in the Thirty Years' War. The struggle in England between the Stuart dynasty and the people as represented by the Commons ended in the establishment of the free constitution of England by "the Glorious Revolution of 1688."

The supremacy of France during the Age of Louis XIV. established the ascendency of the French language, tastes, fashions, manners, and habits of thought among the cultivated and intellectual classes throughout Europe. The revival of learning and science begun in the sixteenth century was continued during the seventeenth, which was signalized by great scientific discoveries, improvements in philosophy, strong literatures and an improved condition of the masses.

Lord Bacon.

Francis Bacon (1561–1626)—the great English philosopher, known better as Lord Bacon (Baron Verulam, Viscount St. Albans)—founded the *inductive* system of philosophy; and his great works were his *Essays*, the *Advancement of Learning* and *Novum Organum*.

Descartes

Descartes (1596–1650)—the eminent French philosopher—had great influence on the method of philosophizing in the seventeenth century. He was the tutor of Queen Christina of Sweden.

Spinoza.

Spinoza (1622–1677)—a Jew of Holland and likewise a great philosopher—carried forward the new system of philosophy founded by Bacon and Descartes, and was a famous Pantheist.

Hobbes and Locke.

Thomas Hobbes (1588–1679)—a famous English philosopher—was early associated with Galileo and Descartes; and his principal works are the *Leviathan* and *Behemoth*. John Locke (1632–1704)—a celebrated English philosopher—wrote an *Essay on the Human Understanding*.

Galileo.

Galileo (1564–1642)—the distinguished Italian astronomer—adopted the Copernican theory of the solar system and invented the telescope, with the aid of which he discovered the satellites of Jupiter, the rings of Saturn and the moonlike phases of Venus. He was twice brought before the Inquisition to renounce the theory of the earth's rotation which he published in his *System of the World*. His second incarceration brought on an affection of the eyes terminating in blindness.

Kepler.

Kepler (1571–1630)—the eminent German astronomer, called "the Legislator of the Heavens"—discovered what are known as *Kepler's Three Laws*, which laid the foundations of mathematical astronomy. Kepler was one of the greatest thinkers of any age. He combined the inspiration of a prophet and the creative genius of a poet with the method of a mathematician. Persecuted by religious bigots, he led a melancholy life in the most abject poverty.

Sir Isaac Newton.

Sir Isaac Newton (1642–1727)—the illustrious English astronomer, mathematician and philosopher, who was then professor of mathematics at Cambridge University—discovered the law of universal gravitation, by which the earth and all the heavenly bodies are kept in their respective places. Newton's theory of light and colors is the foundation of the science of optics; and his Latin Work, *Principia*, is the

basis of all natural philosophy, or physics. Newton also discovered that important instrument of mathematics, the *Calculus*.

Leibnitz.

Leibnitz (1640-1716)—an eminent German philosopher, metaphysician, mathematician, historian, jurist and scholar—was the founder of the *eclectic* system of German philosophy, and discovered the Calculus about the same time as Newton.

Other Great Scientists and Their Discoveries.

Besides the great scientific discoveries by Galileo, Kepler, Newton and Leibnitz—the four great scientific lights during the seventeenth century—there were numerous other discoveries in mathematics, astronomy and natural science. John Napier (1550-1617)—a Scotchman—invented *logarithms*, thus abridging calculation. William Harvey (1578-1657)—a great English physician and surgeon—discovered the circulation of the blood, which he first announced in 1615 and published in 1628. The Italian Torricelli (1608-1647), of Florence, invented the mercurial barometer, the basis of *hydraulics*. Roemer (1644-1710), a Dane, invented the thermometer bearing his name. Otte Guericke (1602-1686), a German, invented the air-pump. The German chemist Brandt accidentally discovered phosphorus in 1669. Robert Boyle (1627-1691)—a famous Irish-English philosopher, noted for his piety—also made chemical discoveries. Mariotte (1620-1684) and Delisle (1675-1726) were distinguished French physicists. Huyghens (1629-1695)—a Dutch astronomer—discovered Saturn's rings and one of his satellites. Cassini (1625-1712)—an Italian astronomer—discovered four satellites of Saturn. His son, James Cassini, discovered the divisions in Saturn's ring. The renowned English astronomer, Edmund Halley (1656-1742), made important discoveries highly serviceable to navigation, and discovered the comet bearing his name. The *English Royal Society* incorporated by Charles II., the *French Academy of Sciences*, now called the *Institut de France*, founded by Colbert in 1666, and similar foundations elsewhere in Europe, advanced physics and chemistry.

Great French Dramatists.

The Age of Louis XIV.—the *Augustan Age of French Literature*—shone resplendent with the names of great dramatists, satirists and divines. Corneille (1606-1684)—a great dramatist—excelled in tragedy, as *The Cid*. Racine (1639-1699)—the greatest French dramatist—was noted for his tragedies. Molière (1622-1673)—also a great dramatist—surpassed in comedy.

Other Great French Writers.

Pascal (1623-1662)—a great philosopher and scientist—wrote against the Jesuits in his *Provincial Letters*. La Rochefoucauld (1613-1680) was noted for his *Moral Maxims*. La Fontaine (1621-1705)—the "Modern Æsop"—was celebrated for his *Fables*. Fénelon (1651-1715)—Archbishop of Cambray—was celebrated for his romance, *Télémaque*. Fleury (1642-1723)—a church historian

—wrote *Histoire Ecclesiastique*. Bayle (1647–1706) was a celebrated Huguenot writer. Boileau (1637–1711) was a great critic and satirical poet. Madame de Sevigne (1627–1696) was famed for her delightful letters to her daughter.

Great French Divines.

Bossuet (1627–1704)—Bishop of Meaux—was a great preacher. Bourdaloue (1632–1704) was also a famous pulpit orator. Massillon (1663–1742) was likewise renowned for pulpit eloquence.

Great English Dramatists.

In English literature we find many dramatists who were cotemporaries and successors of Shakespeare, who died in 1616. Ben Jonson (1574–1637)—poet-laureate under James I.—was the greatest dramatist after Shakespeare. Other great dramatic poets were Francis Beaumont (1585–1615) and John Fletcher (1576–1625), who were associated in their writings; and Philip Massinger (1584–1640).

Other Great English Poets.

John Milton (1608–1674)—the great epic poet of England—who had been Oliver Cromwell's Latin secretary, wrote *Paradise Lost* and *Paradise Regained*, in poverty and blindness, after the Stuart Restoration in 1660. Samuel Butler (1612–1680) wrote *Hudibras*, a satirical poem on the Puritans. John Dryden (1631–1700)—poet-laureate under Charles II.—wrote dramas and satirical poems, and translated Virgil's *Æneid*.

Great English Divines.

John Bunyan (1628–1688)—a tinker of Bedford and a Baptist preacher—was imprisoned twelve years for preaching, during which he wrote *Pilgrim's Progress*, the most famous allegory in the English language, and which has been translated into all languages. Jeremy Taylor (1613–1667)—a great divine and theologian—wrote such works as *Liberty of Prophesying*, *Holy Living* and *Holy Dying*.

Other English Writers.

Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon (1608–1673)—the great statesman and Prime Minister of Charles II.—described the civil war between Charles I. and Parliament in his *History of the Rebellion*. Sir Matthew Hale (1609–1676) was a famous English jurist and writer.

Spanish Dramatists.

Spain produced two great dramatic poets during the seventeenth century. Lope de Vega (1562–1635) wrote a thousand dramas. Calderon (1600–1681) wrote about five hundred dramas.

Great Flemish Painters.

The three greatest artists of the seventeenth century were natives of the Netherlands. Peter Paul Rubens (1577–1640)—the most celebrated of the Flemish painters—flourished at Antwerp, and painted four thousand pictures, of which the most noted are the *Descent from the Cross*, the *Last Judgment* and *Peace and War*. Vandyke (1599–1641)—a pupil of Rubens and a great portrait painter—was a native of Antwerp, but spent most of his life in England, where he painted the portraits of Charles I. and Strafford, and a historical painting, *The*

*Crucifixion.* Rembrandt (1606–1669)—a native of Leyden—was the third great painter of the Flemish school.

**French Painters.** Poussin (1594–1655) was a famous French painter, whose chief paintings are the *Death of Germanicus,* the *Taking of Jerusalem* and the *Last Supper.* Claude Lorraine (1600–1682) and Lebrun (1619–1690) were also celebrated French painters.

**Spanish Painters.** Murillo (1618–1682)—the great Spanish painter—painted scenes of humble life and religious pieces, such as *Madonnas,* holy families and others; and died from the effects of a severe fall while painting the interior of a church. Velasquez (1599–1660) was also a great Spanish painter. Salvator Rosa (1615–1673) was a famous Italian painter and poet.

**English Architects.** Inigo Jones (1596–1652) and Sir Christopher Wren (1632–1723) were great English architects; the latter being the architect of St. Paul's Cathedral in London, the largest Protestant church in the world. Claude Perault (1613–1703) and Mansard (1645–1708) were noted French architects.

**George Fox and the Quakers in England.** As we have seen, the extreme Puritan sect of *Friends,* or *Quakers,* was founded in England by George Fox during the civil wars. George Fox early bewailed the wickedness of the world, and when asked into a booth at a fair by some professors of religion, who then began to drink healths, he left them and went home in great affliction; and, being unable to sleep that night, he walked up and down and prayed to the Lord. In 1643 he left his home and relatives, and traveled from place to place, his mind being in great distress. He sought comfort from priests and professors of religion, but found none. Only the "inward light" comforted him. He traveled about in leather costume, fasted, walked abroad in solitary places, many days took his Bible and sat in hollow trees and lonely places until the approach of night, and frequently walked mournfully by himself all night. He began to preach in 1648, and suffered much persecution, his meetings being broken up, himself being stoned and frequently imprisoned.

**Quaker Doctrines.** George Fox condemned war as a sin in which no Christian man should engage either by military service or the payment of taxes to support an army; advocated equal rights for women, allowing them to speak and preach in public; condemned slavery, intemperance, judicial oaths, capital punishment, imprisonment for debt, extravagance and waste, vanity and idle luxury, the senseless changes of fashion, and all falsehood in act or speech; denounced a hireling ministry; rejected Baptism and the Lord's Supper; and made the authority of the Bible subordinate to that of the "universal inner light" in men's hearts.

The Quakers were a peculiar sect in their dress and in all their social habits and customs. Their zeal was tried by cruel persecution.

Persecution of the Quakers.

They were cast into prison and mad-houses; they were pilloried; they were whipped; they were burned in the face; and their tongues were bored with red-hot irons; but nothing could overcome their fortitude and constancy or quench their enthusiasm. Those who were driven out of England vainly sought an asylum among their former brethren in affliction, the Puritans of New England, by whom also they were persecuted; but under William Penn they found a refuge in the wilds of Pennsylvania.

Dutch Commerce.

The maritime enterprises of the Portuguese during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, which had given that nation the greatest commercial influence, gave way to the superior vigor and enterprise of the Dutch in the seventeenth century.

Dutch East India Company.

The famous Dutch East India Company, chartered in 1602, caused a union of the interests and efforts of the rival cities of the Netherlands. The military and naval power of the Dutch East India Company was enormous. This great commercial corporation had a formidable army, and a navy of one hundred and fifty vessels carrying from twenty to sixty guns, besides fifty smaller vessels. The States-General of Holland at various times subsidized the Company in order to enable it to carry on its wars.

Dutch Colony of Batavia.

The center of the Dutch East India Company was at Batavia, in the island of Java—a city called the "Pearl of the East," and which had a population of one hundred and sixty thousand at the close of the seventeenth century. The Dutch gained the supremacy by their conflicts with the Portuguese, and the Dutch colonies soon became numerous and important.

French, Danish and English East India Companies.

The French also established an East India Company for trade in India, and there was also a Danish East India Company in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The English East India Company, chartered by Queen Elizabeth, December 31, 1600, has been alluded to. Its first factory was erected at Surat in 1612. It obtained the city of Madras by grant from its native sovereign in 1639. It obtained Bombay by cession from the Portuguese in 1662. In 1699 an English settlement was made at Calcutta.

French Commerce and Manufactures.

Henry IV. of France encouraged various kinds of commerce and manufactures; and during the reign of Louis XIV., under Colbert's administration, every department of industrial and commercial enterprise received its greatest impulse in France. Colbert established companies to trade in the East and West Indies, thus forming a rival to the Dutch. He promoted the manufacture of fine cloths, fostered the cultivation of mulberry-trees, and encouraged the art of making plate-glass, which had previously been imported into France from Venice. From that period date the manufacture of porcelain at Sevres and the world-renowned Gobelin tapestry. Colbert imported

from England machinery for weaving stockings, and introduced lace-making from Flanders and Venice. He also vastly promoted commerce by the construction of the Canal of Languedoc, connecting the Atlantic Ocean with the Mediterranean, A. D. 1664–1681.

**English Commerce.**

Commerce and navigation flourished greatly in England during the reign of Charles I., when a large trade was carried on with Guinea, the Levant and the East Indies; while immense quantities of cloth were exported annually from England to Turkey, and the English possessed almost a monopoly of the traffic with Spain. English commerce was interrupted during the civil wars, but soon recovered after the Stuart Restoration, in 1660, and received additional encouragement from the losses which befell the Dutch. England soon acquired a considerable trade with her colonies in North America, about five hundred vessels being employed in trade with those colonies and with the West Indies at the end of the seventeenth century. Some of these vessels were engaged in the slave-trade. Tea and coffee were brought to England from the East, and were so expensive for a time that they were then used only as luxuries. In spite of *The Counterblaste to Tobacco*, written by King James I., who greatly disliked the use of that article, tobacco became an important article of commerce. English whale-ships visited Greenland and Spitzbergen; while Madras and Bombay, in Hindoostan, became the great centers of trade of the English East India Company.

**English Manufactures.**

Next to London, Bristol was the chief sea-port of England; and Norwich was, next to London, the principal manufacturing city of the kingdom. The present great manufacturing centers of England—Manchester, Birmingham, Sheffield and Leeds—were then small towns; and Liverpool had less than two hundred seamen. But manufacturing industry then began its present prominence in England. The cotton manufacture at Manchester commenced, and the art of dyeing woolen cloths was introduced into England from Flanders, thus saving large sums of money to the English. New manufactures of iron, brass, silk and paper were also established in England. The manufacture of oil-cloth in England began in 1660. The Duke of Buckingham introduced glass-making from Venice.

**French Architecture.**

Architecture flourished in France during the seventeenth century. Henry IV. completed the splendid palace of St. Germains and the Hôtel de Ville, both of which had been begun by Francis I., and erected many other magnificent structures. Louis XIV. completed the Palais Royal, begun by Richelieu, and adorned Paris with many parks and public edifices; but the most splendid of his works were the famous palace and gardens of Versailles. The fine arts flourished in England under the Stuarts.

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